

APPROPRIATE OF HONORABLE AND WISE AND
NATIONAL SATISFACTION AND CONVICTION

By

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ABSTRACT OF SUBMISSION AND WIVES AND
MARITAL SATISFACTION AND COMMUNICATION

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Existing literature regarding androgyny suggested relationships between androgyny and better marital and personal adjustment. The current study was initiated to explore the viability of these relationships.

The current study focused on the possibility of a relationship between androgyny and marital satisfaction and communication, and androgyny and the personality characteristics of self-actualization and autonomy.

It was predicted that androgynous spouses would have higher levels of marital satisfaction and communication, higher levels of self-actualization, and lower levels of neurosis than traditional spouses.

To test these hypotheses, 48 spouses (36 couples) were selected for participation in the study upon reoperation (through use of a name-code inventory) of subjects as androgynous or traditional in name-code orientation. The 48

androgynous and 39 traditional husbands and wives were asked to complete a scale measuring a general, overall view of marital satisfaction as well as a daily rating scale of marital satisfaction as measured over a 10-day period. A sample of androgynous and traditional spouses completed the daily scale and in conjunction with this scale, a description of time spent together with spouse in terms of (i) activity engaged in and (ii) notation of how the time could have been made better by the spouse. All subjects completed scales measuring importance of communication in the marriage and level of understanding of spouse, and scales measuring degree of self-actualization and level of neurosis.

There was some indication in the data that one aspect of self-actualization (that of self-actualizing values) differentiated between androgynous and traditional wives, with androgynous wives having higher levels of self-actualizing values than traditional wives. Levels of neurosis were similar for all spouses.

The results for the variables of marital satisfaction and communication tended to challenge the predictions of the study. The traditional couples, contrary to our expectations, tended to have higher levels of marital satisfaction and communication than the androgynous couples, and there was a trend in the data indicating that the traditional wives had higher levels of marital satisfaction than the androgynous wives.

Individual case reports for couples were compiled through analysis of the daily police notes. These reports were compiled in order to offer supplemental findings by describing the characteristics of, and functioning of, androgynous and traditional marriages. Such things as greater self-disclosure among androgynous couples and greater concern with social norms among traditional couples were noted.

Though for the variable of self-actualizing values, the results of the study did not support and/or challenged the experimental hypothesis. It was suggested that as more studies are compiled employing the concept of androgyny, it may be found that there may not be a simple relationship between androgyny and marital and personal adjustment. Perhaps androgyny must be combined with other factors for marital and personal adjustment to follow, or perhaps androgynous roles are related to experiences of resistance within the greater society which limit marital and personal adjustment and satisfaction.

CHAPTER I
LITERATURE REVIEW AND SYNTHESIS

Introduction

Reviews of the emerging literature regarding the foundations for sex differences (e.g., Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Rosenberg, 1973) find that, presently, there is much evidence to support the value and appropriateness of an "androgyne" conception of the individual (not of the "well-adjusted" individual) and thus challenging our standard notions of femininity and masculinity. The data indicate a societal versus a biological basis in our commonly held views of masculinity and femininity and our role prescriptions for appropriate male and female behavior. Studies suggest that the attainment of gender and androgyny is constraining role prescriptions may lead to negative consequences for the human personality and relations between people, as well as for one's self-actualization and the quality of one's life.

See (1974) has conceptualized a model of the androgyne individual and created a scale to measure androgyny. This model combines positive attributes of both the male and female roles. Studies support (see, 1973; Black, 1971)

Salovey, 1981; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1976) that androgynous males may be associated with less anxiety, greater self-actualization, better communication with spouses (and greater understanding of spouses), higher marital satisfaction, and greater equality and independence. In contrast to the androgynous style, traditional styles may be associated with greater anxiety and lower marital communication and adjustment.

Barnard (1951) described traditional marriage as being particularly destructive for women and stated that the structure of marriage roles must change toward the egalitarian mode if marriage is not to have negative effects on women. He saw marriage as affording a great deal to men, but believed that it will have to change if women are to experience well-being. Though, as Barnard claimed, men may like traditional marriage, there is evidence (which we shall review) that men (and women) may like an androgynous marriage better, and benefit from it more.

It seems that androgyny is an important new style of behavior and its effects and meanings are significant. Marriage is an institution that is a primary experience for most people and within which role prescriptions are of special importance. As yet, there is little direct evidence of a relationship between androgyny and marital satisfaction. The current study will focus therefore

currently on the issue of the relationship between androgyny, the marital relationship, and marital satisfaction. Self-actualization and autonomy of spouses will also be examined in an attempt to understand the meanings of androgyny.

Role Theory

Darwin and Allen (1984) define roles as "expectations intended to denote that conduct referred to certain parts" (p. 486) and note that people frequently are engaged in role-playing. Darwin and Allen also discuss dimensions of roles such as role expectations and role enactments. Sharp and Otis (1981) note that "individuals, by virtue of occupying particular social positions, have expectations and values concerning behavior that is appropriate to that position" (p. 138). Merton (1937) explains that "the internalized role expectations which converge upon a given person constitute that person's social self." He sees roles as "signifiers of human conduct" and notes that "human conduct is organized and directed in terms of social acts" (p. 281).

The roles of men or women, and of husband and wife, are primary for most people. People have concepts regarding what is appropriate behavior for men and women and/or spouses. The role of man or woman or husband and wife that one plays is based on one's view of how a man or woman or husband or wife should act, what one wants from

the opposite sex, and what one expects from the opposite sex (Barnes et al have one measure of the opposite sex). Thery (1984), in a review of approaches to marriage research, finds role theory a most viable approach, being highly useful in the understanding of and conceptualization of marriage. Lang-Lewin (1971) points out that the traditional sex roles and marriage roles have long been accepted as natural and appropriate among researchers and have been used as models for conceptualization of spouses and marriages.

There is evidence to suggest that role conflict can be a source of personal and marital conflict and unhappiness. In Orl's (1984) study, it was best for spouses' happiness if the number of role conflicts was minimal. The best situation for happiness was the role expectations for self and spouse to be gratified. Thery and Orl (1986) found reorganization of roles as well as aid in their gender function for men and women to be a viable and to married therapy.

Burns and Allen (1988) discussed the importance to the individual's well-being of self-role congruence, self-role congruence referring to "the degree to which qualities of the self--traits, values, or beliefs--and requirements of the role subject to frequent or overlap" (p. 211). Studies by Simlar (1961) and Mueker (1963) indicate that self-role incongruence can lead to tension

and cognitive strains, Markus (1984) found that accommodation and productivity inhibited by conflicts between self and role. Markus (1987) noted that subjects in self-role congruence situations were more self-satisfied than subjects in self-role incongruent situations.

Intra-role conflict for the simultaneous presence of incompatible roles can produce cognitive strains and anxiety. Brown, Kasser, and Reichenheim (1988) studied the conflicts generated by the role of school superintendant (where expectations of school board members conflicted with expectations of teachers). Schneider's (1988) study noted the conflicts experienced by college women attempting to fulfill the roles of achieving student and traditionally feminine (i.e., passive and submissive) women, and in a more recent study, Jennings and Jennings (1994) suggested that the higher anxiety found among egalitarian college women versus traditional women was related, in part, to the conflicts experienced by the egalitarian women as they reject the traditional role. Marcus (1987) found that the adult male role had different (e.g., greater socializing) demands on men than did the adolescent male. Men who had maintained the adolescent role when they were young (e.g. being highly sensitive) experienced disappointment and difficulties in adult life when their previous successful role proved incompatible with the current role of adult male.

DEFINITIONS OF Types of Sex Roles,
Marriage Roles, and Marriage

The traditional female role. The traits associated with the traditional view and role of the female include, according to Lee (1974) and Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), being affectionate, gentle, understanding, and sensitive to the needs of others; having low achievement motivation, low initiative, high suggestibility and conformity, and a tendency toward passivity, submissiveness, and compliance.

The traditional wife role. The traditional wife role, according to Ricks and Fiese (1970), includes the wife being supportive and nurturant, understanding of and sympathetic to the husband—generally being submissive to the husband's dominance and being responsible for the care of the house and the children, as well as for the quality of the interpersonal relationships and the morale of all the family members. Her role can be broadly categorized as "expressive."

The traditional male role. Brounberg (1973) and Lee (1974) note that this role calls for a man to be competitive, aggressive, assertive, rational, assertive, strong, serious, and self-reliant and ambitious.

The traditional husband role. Ricks and Fiese (1970) note that the husband's function in this role is mainly instrumental in nature. He is the breadwinner, handles the financial affairs, makes the major decisions, and

expects submission from his wife (Brett, 1987). He expects empathy, understanding, understanding, and emotional support from his wife though his role does not particularly require him to return them. He is not likely to engage in child care or in housework (Brett, 1987; Ricks & Platt, 1980).

The traditional marriage. Ricks and Platt (1974) describe this as a marriage where adherence to traditional male-female and husband-wife roles is the rule. Customs and norms and social status are all important in this couple. The husband's role is dominant and is mainly instrumental. The wife's role is submissive and mainly expressive. Tasks are strictly sex differentiated, and the husband's role and his happiness are considered critical. The wife takes care of house and children. The husband takes care of business affairs, important decisions, and dealings with the outside world.*

*It is noted that a traditional marriage, although not having intimacy and communication as goals per se (Ricks & Platt, 1970), probably needs some degree of these factors for marital satisfaction to occur. Traditional marriages are not discussed in the literature (Brett, 1987; Ricks & Platt, 1980) as ideally lacking in intimacy or communication, but rather as de-emphasizing these elements. However, studies utilizing married married subjects populations, found dissatisfaction to result when necessary and communication were lacking (e.g., Turner et al., 1988; Butler, 1985; Davanour & Ross, 1981; Ricks, 1987). The levels of communication and intimacy that a traditional marriage must achieve to ensure satisfaction in marriage may be much lower than that needed for the happiness of an unconcerned marriage, but some degree of these factors is most probably necessary for happiness in a traditional marriage.

The androgynous male and female roles. Ben (1971) writes that "androgyny allows [a man or woman] to be both independent and tender, assertive and yielding, masculine and feminine" (p. 121). The androgynous man or woman, the writer, subverts aspects of the male and female roles. The androgynous male allows one to be whatever one wants to be without feeling bound by one's "male role." The androgynous person contains human (i.e., "male" and "female") qualities and needs within himself in order to fulfill himself as an individual. Personality development and self-actualization can be important goals of this type of person; intimacy, love, and development of oneself can be significant to a more androgynous conception of the individual and an androgynous style (Bem, 1968; Spilde & Swenson, 1978).

The androgynous husband and wife roles. The androgynous husband and wife roles can be seen as the ideal of the egalitarian roles for men and women described by such authors as Saks and Platt (1974), Burgess (1976), and Ben (1977). In this conception of marriage roles, the spouses share domestic tasks, child-care and financial responsibility (Saks & Platt, 1974). They emphasize the affective aspects of their relationship. Saks and Platt note that marital happiness with egalitarian partners depends on the expressive aspects of the relationship. Burgess (1976) noted that in the

egalitarian relationship the husband and wife cooperate with, and identify with, each other, and are essentially par-animaux. They are adaptable during crisis, allowing free interchanges of power (Baker & Williams, 1978). They emphasize personality development and self-actualization and the breakdown of extreme polarizations (Burgess, 1974).

These spouses both consider it important to be affectionate with one another and to be understanding (Burgess, 1974). They both consider each other's careers as important and each other as important. They are neither subservient nor dominant (Baker & Plant, 1978). They both consider it important to develop their own personality and to fulfill themselves, and they want the same for their spouse (Baker & Plant, 1978). They value expressive versus instrumental goals as important as marriage, overall.

The androgynous marriage. The androgynous marriage may be conceived of as the ideal of the equalization of companionate marriage—a marriage free of role prescriptions based on traditional sex-role definitions. The egalitarian marriage involves husband and wife being equal partners (Burgess, 1974). The marriage is democratic with mutuality of decision making and breakdown of role polarizations. Role definitions are symmetrical or hetero-orthogonal (Burgess, 1974).

The quality of life, self-actualization, and the expressive aspects of the relationship are important in

over marriage (Hargrave, 1980). Husband and wife share tasks, including financial, childcare, and household responsibilities. Mutual loving and happiness are goals, and they are considered more important than status and money. Hanks and Flitz (1979) discuss the egalitarian marriage as one in which variables such as respect and affection for spouse, sexual enjoyment, companionship, and communication are significant.

Sex roles and stereotypes. Many studies suggest a cultural basis for the male and female stereotypical roles (under the husband and wife traditional roles). Kennedy and Jacklin (1974) is a review of the literature, with evidence that challenges the existence of 'natural sex differences' such as girls being naturally more suggestible and less achievement-oriented than boys (Kennedy & Jacklin, 1974). They find support for the idea of boys being more aggressive than girls and girls having greater verbal abilities. However, they do not find there is conclusive evidence that one sex is naturally more dominant than the other, more competitive, more assertive, or more compliant.

Kosmanov (1971), in her review of literature relating to the biological basis for sex-role stereotypes, finds animal studies that purport to offer evidence supporting stereotyped sex roles, assessed methodologically, and she notes that 'every imaginable mode of relationship between the same species is different species' (p. 178).

Money (1961) finds that individuality is more important than gender in determining sex identity. He concludes that individual factors outweigh biological factors as factors of sex identity. He states, "... it becomes necessary to allow that gender without and without sex is an autonomous psychological phenomenon independent of genes and hormones, and moreover, a permanent and ineliminable one as well" (p. 1187). Perhaps it may be more 'natural' for individuals to be engaged in sex-role free behaviors and attitudes than in stereotypical male/female behavioral modes.

Reviews of women's roles in the individual. There is evidence that women experience more psychological distress than men.

Jackson (1973, 1974) found adolescent women to exhibit feelings of anxiety and powerlessness, as well as poor self-concepts and the need for self-esteem (which they regretted). Boys also suffered from powerlessness but were less anxious and could look ahead to society's granting them power when they became adults. However, whereas boys' powerlessness would pass as time, girls' powerlessness would continue on to adulthood. Stefur and Lorr (1974) found that in groups of adolescents in a 7-year-age range (12-19), girls scored significantly more anxious, less stable, and less self-sufficient than boys.

Gurtl (1978) found women to be more neurotic and anxious than men. Gurtl et al. (1981) found higher

anxiety and were fearful of all types among women subjects (Gurin et al.) attribute this finding to the greater freedom of women to express themselves in regard to psychological distress. However, there is evidence that women are more anxious generally. Sarason and Sarason (1975) and Dunkel-Schetter and Sarason (1982) found women's anxiety to be higher than men's in situational studies as well.

Gove and Tudor (1972) found that it is not simply being a woman that predisposes one to psychological distress, but that being a housewife can contribute greatly to psychological illia. In Gove and Tudor's study, being a single woman and a housewife made a difference for women in terms of being severely disturbed. More housewives than career women were severely disturbed. Gove and Tudor (1972) and Gurin et al. (1968) found that single women were unsatisfied, confident, and adaptable in comparison to single men, who were highly satisfying and married women. The same studies also found that married women were much more unhappy and unfulfilled than married men. It is suggested by the above authors that the traditional wife role is disturbing for women.

Women are found to dislike the feminine role and traditional attitudes toward women, and negative attitudes toward women are common in the society generally. Kupperman et al. (1972) found that the male role is more

valued by both men and women, and Brown (1943) noted that young boys expressed a stronger preference for the masculine role than did girls for the feminine role. Also, many more adult women recalled consciously having been aware of the desire to be of the opposite sex than did men. Both men and women view the female role as negative.

Moreover, Berman et al. (1972) found that clinical view well-adjusted adult males as having attitudes similar to those of adjusted adults whereas women are conceived of as being well adjusted if they exhibit characteristics the clinicians ascribe to neurotic persons. Clinicians not only accept, but expect, a lower level of functioning in women. The inference is that for clinicians in Berman's study it is natural for women to be neurotic(1).

Neukel (1973) was interested in whether similar views of neurosis were held by lay people. In a sample of college students he found that men and women both categorized the ideal adult similarly as the ideal man, as well as the ideal female similarly as the neurotic. Berman et al. (1974) found that community men were frequently rated worse medical school applicants as maladjusted than they did men, and the reasons for this appeared to be that they felt the women were transgressing their own role.

The meaning of men's roles in the polytechnic. Though direct studies are few, there is some indication that the traditional male role relates to maladjustment. Kanner (1961) found that though a high degree of masculine identification during adolescence is associated with concurrent emotional security, as adults, traditional men suffered a lack of dominance and capacity for status and poor self-acceptance, low self-concept, and significant needs for self-assertion. Lee (1971) found traditional men to be restricted in their behavior. They were unable to express affection, reveal sensitivity, or react sensitively or be nurtured, tender, or playful. The polytechnic males were more highly adaptive than the traditional males and more at ease in different task situations.

There is some indication of the negative effects of traditionalism on men. Men, however, are less affected by their traditional role in marriage than women are by their traditional role. Bernard notes the beneficial effects of marriage on men, citing the positive influence of the marriage-making institutional and physical that the man receives from his wife and the privileged position he enjoys of having a career and being a husband versus occupying the one role of wife-care-taker. The traditional man, especially, as we have seen, is not required to return caretaking to his wife. He enjoys pursuing a career and has a wife to take

care of his house and children as well as his emotional needs. Possibly the benefits of a traditional marriage lessen the negative effects of men's traditionalism:

Boon et al. (1981), Gatta et al. (1982), and Kotler (1981) are among the authors whose studies suggest that there may be a simple standard for what is most satisfactory in a spouse generally, and that standard revolves around the expressive dimensions (which are significant dimensions of the traditional wife). These studies suggest that an understanding, empathetic, considerate spouse adds to marital satisfaction generally, and, thus, a traditional wife is an asset to traditional men.

Turnard (1982) and Gatta and Taylor (1982) note that married men age 40+ with less neurasthenia and were happier than single men. Possibly, it is as difficult for men to adjust to being single as for women to be involved in the traditional marriage. However, the marriage literature reports that the men outgrouped the men and his marriage, the men satisfied and adjusted he is within marriage (Bo, 1982; Gatta, 1982; Gatta, 1984). Traditional husbands may be less neurasthenic than married women or single men and were happier than these groups, but the negative effects of their traditionalism may become apparent when one compares them with egalitarian husbands:

The social fabric seems much more positively than it does seem. As noted by Severnson et al. (1981), clinicians see the ideal man as being similar to the ideal adult. Abramowitz et al. (1983) found that counselors support and accept the career aspirations of men. Studies by Stone (1980) and Rosenkrantz et al. (1981) indicate the prevalence of positive attitudes toward men. It need not be further explained that the structure of the society is geared toward satisfying the needs of men rather than those of women.

In this culture, men who are married might not be expected to be as alienated and isolated as women since they are such an integral part of the society's structure and beliefs as to what is positive for a person to be. Also, if a man chooses androgyny as his life-style, he may not necessarily experience anxiety and alienation because the socialization process appears to reward male sex roles and calls for him to become more androgynous, anyway. Perhaps a fully androgynous male might, in earlier days, have been alienated, however, it is possible that in present androgyny is becoming more accepted. Furthermore, the androgynous male is not giving up his masculinity (which would most probably bring alienation); he is simply expanding his repertoire and options. Finally, an androgynous male might enjoy the comfort of being of the "right" and/or "expected" sex in his culture.

Definition of androgyny and sources of androgyny in the individual—Block (1971) provides evidence based on cross-sectional and longitudinal data which suggests that the most effective functioning involves aspects of both male and female sex roles. She also discusses the social process as noted as extending from adolescence for men but not for women. Lee (1975) notes that androgynous persons are more likely to display adaptability. She also concludes that androgyny combines the more positive aspects of the male and female sex roles. "Androgyny greatly expands the range of behavior open to . . . [people] to cope more effectively within diverse situations" (p. 42).

Spencer et al. (1975) found that for men and women, the endorsement of both highly valued masculine traits and feminine traits correlated positively with self-esteem. Mataro (1981, 1982) found that men who tended toward androgynous styles were more self-actualized, less neurotic, and had higher self-concepts and more confidence than the more traditional men. Wilson (1980), in studying the creative personality, found a combination of masculine and feminine traits to be a significant factor in creativity. Josselyn and Josselyn (1970) found evidence of egalitarianism and antisocialism in women to be related to creativity. Burkhead and Warner (1974) found women without to have traits which reflect both male and female sex roles.

including egotismness, achievementness, extroversion, imagination, sensitivity, and independence.

Osip (1972) found that women with the highest ego strength were actively pursuing a career and marriage, and that these women were in decrease as women pursuing marriage alone. A study by Turgut (1972) found color liberation women to be autonomous, individualistic, and striving, and to be in decrease as traditional women. Bright, academically achieving high school girls (Kiper, 1973) and intellectually oriented adults (Forsyth & Lerner, 1974) showed patterns of achievement motivation similar to males. Ajolis and Kautzfeld (1974) found that women professing liberal, professional attitudes were more self-actualized than women endorsing traditional social-code attitudes. They were more self-reliant and had a higher self-concept, more aggression, and described good intimate relations with men.

Being less conforming (Johnson & Macdonald, 1974) and more committed to sexual change (Fowler et al., 1973) were qualities associated with liberal attitudes toward women. Williams (1973) found that dominant-dominant girls of his sample, who saw themselves as being like their fathers, were the least masculine. Females who identified with nurturing-passive mothers were the most masculine.

Fowler and Van de Lant (1973) concluded that dominant women in their study appeared to be well-adjusted (and as

Domine as other women). They were found to be more autonomous, aggressive, and dominant than women generally. Fowler and Van de Riet concluded that "in the light of the complexity and demands of life today (these characteristics are) perfectly appropriate behavior, which would further women's contributions to a better life for everyone" (p. 273).

Women (still) feel that men will reject them if they are not typically feminine. Eisenman et al. (1969) and Appoyort (1970) found that women believe that men want classically traditional females. Beynon and Kendrick (1971), however, found that male subjects were equally attracted to a feminine female and a masculine female; and Spence and Helmreich (1972) found that men liked masculine, competent women best of a group of women.

There may be a trend toward androgyny among youth. Erickson (1968) saw the new generation as "actively" rejecting traditional sex roles. Farvian (1970) found that by 1973 women felt their careers were of equal importance to men's careers and that they should share equally in the financial household chores. No denial of femininity was found among this college sample. Lunsbury and Rosenwald (1972) found that there is a trend presently toward the combining of male and female attributes.

Gill and Bentler (1970) found that androgynous role standards were related to opposition to traditional

sex-role standards, to perceived similarity of males and females, to perceived similarity of self to opposite sex, and to intelligence. Bean and Bickelhoff (1971) found that men and women tended to exhibit conflict behavior to the extent that they saw themselves as different from the opposite sex.

WOMEN AND THE TRADITIONAL MARRIAGE: The evidence indicates that the role of traditional wife is a negative one for most women. Ross (1955) found that women who married early were unhappy, and that a majority of the women in her sample did not like housework; that most wanted more education and regretted not having it; and that a majority of the satisfied women were employed. Rye (1974) found that half of his sample of wives were eager to share their household tasks with a housekeeper. Burgess (1971) notes that the husband's role distinguishes between happy and unhappy women.

Married women compared unfavorably to their single counterparts in Hatterman's (1971) study of high school girls. Those who remained single showed better emotional adjustment, greater self-reliance, and a greater sense of personal freedom. Kaplan (1968) found more married than unmarried women to be passive, depressed, and phobic. The marriage literature reveals aspects of equalitarianism being related to marital adjustment. Thus, it may be

suggested that the married women in the above samples were involved in more traditional marriages.

Though being a mother is an integral part of the traditional female role, there is evidence that motherhood does not bring satisfaction to many women. Having the responsibility of child-rearing seems more often to be burdensome to women. Campbell (1966) found that the wife's positive feelings about marriage declined with successive births. Neil and Gross (1978) found that the wife's alienation was related to the size of the family. Men, too, have problems related to children. Jones (1978) found childless couples happier than those with children. Wood and wife (1981) and Crouter (1982) found that post-parental parents rated themselves as happier than when the children were at home. Collins and Felmus (1970) and Burr (1978) found that the child-rearing years are the worst marriage years for wives in particular.

Equilateralities in Marriage

Though it is difficult to be conclusive on the issue because studies are needed that cover the relative perceptions of kinds of marriage in our society, there is evidence of an inherent nature to suggest that there may be a trend toward egalitarianism in marriage. Larson (1976) noted that most respondents in a questionnaire about familial power relations see their families as egalitarian

Eys (1970) found aspects of the companionship marriage becoming significant in U.S. society. He found evidence for two new roles for husbands and wives, the therapeutic and the recreational. These two areas appear to be critical to present-day marriages. The element of the therapeutic emphasizes a shift away from traditionalism--as both the husband and wife may become interested in personality development and in being supporters of one another--emphasizing mutual caring or the wife alone having the supportive, equanimous function. McGueena (1980), in reporting a study by Hill (1970) on values in male selection, found that shifts occurred principally in those areas related to egalitarian marriages. There is evidence supporting the positive effects of egalitarianism on marital satisfaction for husbands and wives. Lu (1981) found that husbands' dissipation was related to the poor marital adjustment of both husbands and wives. Edge and Rollins (1971) found that changes of power do not occur in traditional marriages during a crisis but that power shifts readily when an egalitarian couple is involved in a crisis. This suggests that egalitarian couples are more adaptable and flexible in crisis situations.

There is evidence for a single standard of satisfactory marriage partner--and that partner has qualities associated with endorphin intake as all. (1980) Murray, 1987,

(Levinson, 1944). The contents of these roles are aggressive versus instrumental and emphasize competitiveness and communication. An accommodating, responsive, considerate spouse (who is more than likely to be somewhat androgynous) seems to add to marital satisfaction generally (Rais et al., 1983; Kotler, 1985).

Bass and Kerckhoff (1971) found that spouses appeared to exhibit conflict behavior to the degree that they perceived their mate to be different from themselves. The best situation for marital compatibility, according to a study by Weiss (1981), is that of equal intelligence.

Rais et al. (1981) found that successful marriages were characterized by a breakdown of sex-role polarization. Brown (1971) found that happy couples had both better verbal and nonverbal communication than did unhappy couples. Davis et al. (1980) noted that personal involvement and communication were related to marital happiness. Kotler (1985) noted that both adjusted husbands and adjusted wives saw their mates as warm, responsive, and understanding. Levinson (1985) found that both husbands and wives place a higher value on affective than on instrumental aspects of marriage. Chelms and Meyer (1981) found that love and companionship as marriage received the highest rating (higher than living conditions or sex satisfaction) among college students endorsing reasons for marriage. Levinson and

Reiss (1987) found that marital satisfaction and full disclosure of feelings were positively related. They also found that full disclosure of feelings and positive feelings between spouses, when occurring together, had an even more positive effect on marital adjustment and satisfaction.

Twiss (1971) found that female-oriented men are happier than men with more instrumental orientations. Working wives appear to have an advantage over nonworking wives. Gelles (1984) found more satisfaction and more egalitarianism in the beginning of marriage, when wives were working. Gelles and Andrews (1988) found that the greatest marital satisfaction occurred in families where the wife worked part time. Burgess and Cottrell (1959) found that companionship love was related to a wife's working and to marital satisfaction.

Suggestions from the Evidence

The evidence reviewed suggests, first of all, that marital satisfaction and adjustment may be positively related to androgynous roles for both husbands and wives. Androgynous husbands and wives in androgynous marriages might tend more toward marital adjustment and satisfaction than traditional husbands and wives in traditional relationships.

The most difficult situation for marital satisfaction may be a traditional wife participating in a traditional marriage. Traditional husbands in traditional marriages may

be expected to have more positive self-actualization than their traditional spouses.

Androgynous husbands and wives may be expected to have high levels of satisfaction.

In the androgynous marriage, both spouses may be expected to be highly understanding of one another and highly communicative. In the traditional marriage, the wife may be expected to be understanding of the husband and to consider it important that he be able to communicate his needs and values to her, but the husband might show low understanding of his wife and low interest in her communications. The data suggest relationships between kinds of sex roles, kinds of marriages, and level of nervousness and self-actualization. The present situation for a woman, in terms of level of nervousness and self-actualization, may be that of being a traditional wife married in a traditional marriage. Her traditional role and marriage, as we have seen, may predispose her to a high level of nervousness and a low level of self-actualization.

We have seen that the traditionalism of the traditional man may be a factor in his level of nervousness and self-actualization, but within a traditional marriage he is somewhat protected from the negative effects of his attitude. He may be expected to have moderate levels of self-actualization and nervousness.

The androgynous husband, based on the literature reviewed, may be expected to be high on self-actualization and low on neurosis. He might have more positive ratings on these factors than would the traditional husband.

The androgynous wife may also be high on self-actualization; however, overall, the evidence reviewed suggests that though the androgynous woman is involved in a positive type of role, the weight of environmental and cultural variables are against her. Thus, it is conceivable that though she may make way going through her androgyny and her androgynous marriage, she may still exhibit a moderate level of neurosis. She may be more neurotic than her husband, but less neurotic than her traditional counterpart.

The Present Study

Comparisons Between Androgynous and Traditional Spouses

This study examined spouses within androgynous and traditional marriages. The androgynous husbands were compared with their androgynous wives and the traditional husbands were compared with their traditional wives on the various factors of verbal communication and affection and also on self-actualization and neurosis. The androgynous husbands were compared with the traditional wives on the various factors. Table 1 summarizes the predictions of the study, which are made in the hypotheses which follow.

TABLE 1

Predictions for each factor

original independent variable	Marital separation or divorce	single- parenting experience	Boys- parenting experience	Boys- parenting network	children
AE = AE	AE = AE	AE = AE	AE = AE	AE = AE	AE = AE
TE > TE	TE > TE	TE > TE	TE > TE	TE > TE	TE > TE
AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE
AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE	AE > TE

Note. AE = adolescent boys, AE = adolescent girls, AE = traditional boys, AE = traditional girls, AE = traditional girls, AE = traditional girls.

Hypotheses

Level of Marital Satisfaction

1. There will be no significant difference between the androgynous husbands and the androgynous wives in terms of marital satisfaction.
2. The traditional husbands' marital satisfaction will be significantly greater than the traditional wives' satisfaction.
3. The androgynous husbands' marital satisfaction will be significantly greater than the traditional husbands' satisfaction.
4. The androgynous wives' marital satisfaction will be significantly greater than the traditional wives' satisfaction.

Level of Marital Communication

5. There will be no significant difference between the marital communication levels of the androgynous husbands and the androgynous wives.
6. The traditional husbands will experience a significantly higher degree of marital communication than the traditional wives.
7. The androgynous husbands will experience a significantly higher level of marital communication than the traditional husbands.

8. The androgynous wives will experience a level of marital communication that is significantly greater than that of the traditional wives.

Level of Understanding of Spouse

9. There will be no significant difference between the degree of understanding of spouse of the androgynous husbands and the androgynous wives.

10. The degree of understanding of spouse of the traditional husbands will be significantly lower than that of the traditional wives.

11. The androgynous husbands will exhibit a degree of understanding of spouse that is significantly greater than that of the traditional husbands.

12. There will be no significant difference between the degree of understanding of spouse of the androgynous wives and the traditional wives.

Level of Self-Actualization

13. There will be no significant difference between the self-actualization of the androgynous husbands and the androgynous wives.

14. The traditional husbands will have a significantly higher level of self-actualization than the traditional wives.

15. The androgynous husbands will have a significantly higher degree of self-actualization than the traditional husbands.

14. The androgynous wives will have a significantly higher level of self-actualization than the traditional wives.

Level of Neurosis

15. The androgynous husbands will exhibit a significantly lower level of neurosis than the androgynous wives.

16. The traditional husbands will exhibit a significantly lower level of neurosis than the traditional wives.

17. The level of neurosis of the androgynous husbands will be significantly lower than that of the traditional husbands.

18. The level of neurosis of the androgynous wives will be significantly lower than that of the traditional wives.

CHAPTER I

METHOD

Participant Sampling

Two groups of subjects were needed for the study: a group of endogenous married couples and a group of traditional married couples. Various agencies, groups, and institutions were decided upon that could be expected to yield young endogenous and traditional couples.*

Personal relationships with the agencies and groups were established in order to obtain permission to contact members of the groups. Speeches were made and meetings held in order to gain access to group members. Articles were written for newsletters, advertisements placed, announcements sent out, and lectures given to the groups advising participation in a project studying personality and the married relationship. Over 200 potential subjects asked for (and received) personal discussion with the researcher.

*The groups included: Catholic and Jewish married Encounters, National Organization for Women, Family Planning, American Civil Liberties Union, American Civil Liberties Union Women's Rights Project, National Organization for Women, University of California at Los Angeles Married Student Meeting, Pepperdine University at Malibu, and the University of Southern California. Other sources included large apartment complexes populated by young married couples, local and city-wide newspapers, and friends and associates.

either in person or via telephone) before they would agree to complete the initial scale (the Ben scale). Most subjects indicated that they would take advantage of the future feedback session that was offered as an incentive to participate in the study.

The search for couples yielded 408 subjects who agreed to complete the Ben scale. Ben scales were sent to them, and the subjects were told to fill out their scales in confidence from their spouses. They were told the scale would take about 5 to 10 minutes to complete. The subjects were told that this was a screening scale for possible further participation in a project studying parenthood and the marital relationship, and that their scales were to be confidential data for the use of the examiner. They were told, as well, that they could receive feedback on all their scales; that further participation would involve about 1-1/2 hours of tests to be completed at home (with some couples also asked to do 2-week daily diary scales), and that they would be completing a personal background data sheet regarding such items as ages of spouses and ages and number of children, income level, and type of employment.

Of the 408 Ben scales sent out to the subjects, only 214 were returned. To obtain this rate of return it was necessary to remind the subjects (via letter or telephone) of the importance of their scales to the project. Of the

couples who, despite encouragement, did not return their answer, several expressed their reasons for not completing their two scales. Some of the reasons included feelings about the questions being "too general" or the items being "unable to capture my personality."

The analysis of the returned scales revealed that all possible 16 combinations of couple type were represented (see Table 2) and that despite comprehensive efforts to obtain subjects of the desired combinations, there were few young endogamous couples or young traditional couples. There were 15 young traditional couples and 4 young endogamous couples in the group of 118 couples falling within the desired age range. This was the case although every effort was made to utilize sources for subjects that could be expected to yield traditional or endogamous couples.

Realizing the great difficulties involved in obtaining subjects of the desired parameters, the researcher decided to consider the possibility of expanding the population by utilizing traditional and endogamous couples who were older than the designated age range and couples who had more than two children. By utilizing these couples, there would be a statistically appropriate number of couples of both combinations; after allowing for the couples who did not want to participate further in the study, there would be 15 endogamous and 15 traditional couples.

Table 2

Number of Devices in Each of 16 Categories
(as limited by the test meter)

Device	No. of			
	T_E	A	T_F	B
T_E	8	6	14	7
A	3	13	10	4
T_F	2	4	6	3
B	1	3	9	1

NOTE: Total number of samples = 114. T_E = traditional manual test; A = autotest; T_F = traditional function; B = simplified autotest.

In reviewing the populations of the younger and older couples inclusive, it was found that the influence of possible relevant factors on the date of the inclusion of the older couples and of couples with more than two children (which in this case were the older couples) might be limited. A review of Table 1 shows a similar variability in both populations in terms of ages of spouses, income levels, and ages and number of children.

Another factor considered is the addition of the older couples who were of length of marriage. The data on this factor, however, were inconclusive. Although there was some suggestion in the literature that there is a gradual decrease in marital adjustment and satisfaction over time (Bass, 1941), other data suggested increases over time as well (Friedberg & Caplowitz, 1963). It was decided, then, to include the older couples in the study.

The 16 selected couples were sent complete test materials consisting of the Locke-Wallace Short Form Marital Adjustment Test, A Revised Communication Inventory, a Revised Ben Neale's Instructions to complete it 'as if [the subject] were' his or her spouse, the Personal Orientation Inventory, and the Symptom Forming Inventory. Complete instructions were sent along with the test materials. The subjects were asked to fill out their scales in confidentiality from their spouse. They were

Table 2

Description of subjects

Code no.	Traditional villages			Andropogon division		
	area of forested land (sq.)	no. of children ^a	area of children ^a	area of forested land (sq.)	no. of children ^a	area of children ^a
1	56, 34	2	16/16/16	14	38, 50	0
2	48, 48	2	11/24	17	25, 41	1
3	47, 44	0	0	18	51, 30	2
4	52, 45	2	11/23	19	41, 43	2
5	44, 43	4	(11/23/24) (16/23/18)	23	46, 38	2
6	42, 51	0	0	21	40, 38	2
7	25, 28	0	0	22	28, 28	0
8	36, 33	2	8/23/22	23	26, 24	1
9	33, 28	2	4/2	24	26, 28	2
10	34, 33	0	0	25	32, 32	0
11	32, 28	2	7/5	26	25, 30	2
12	28, 33	1	2	27	26, 24	0
13	26, 28	0	0	28	28, 28	0
14	24, 34	2	1/1	29	27, 25	1
15	23, 23	0	0	30	23, 23	0

^a Children in home.^b Estimated income.

asked to contact the contact immediately if any questions arose, via stamped, addressed envelopes included with the test batteries.

All subjects had been told earlier of the possibility of their completing two final scales. When all of the test batteries were finished, the researcher went out letters to the subjects asking if they would like to participate in the final scale—the 3-week daily rating scale of marital satisfaction. The couples were informed that the scale could provide further information about marital relationships by adding a day-to-day behavioral element to the analysis of the marriage and that the scale would add to the value of the feedback. They were also told that their participation in this scale would add to the viability of the study itself. Six traditional and five androgynous couples agreed to participate in the final scale. The couples were told that the Marital Satisfaction Five Item would take approximately 3 to 10 minutes a day to complete and would be done on 14 consecutive days.

The participating couples were sent a supply of rating sheets for the five items, with written instructions and stamped, self-addressed envelopes. The subjects were asked to complete their scales in confidence from the spouse. They were told to complete one rating sheet per day and to mail the sheet that day. Subjects who delayed in mailing

their scales were contacted via telephone and reminded of the importance of their scales. All subjects were told that when the study was complete a meeting time would be arranged with them for their personal feedback session (if such a session was desired).

Instrument

The following section is a description of the scales used to measure each variable.

Androgyny and Traditionalism

Androgyny and traditionalism were assessed through utilization of the Ben Ben Scale Inventory (BSBI). The Ben scale is a self-ratio inventory that categorizes persons as "masculine" (traditionally masculine), "feminine" (traditionally feminine), "androgynous," or "undifferentiated" in sex roles. Fromm to 1975, Ben did not have separate categories for androgynous and undifferentiated sex roles. However, following the recommendations of Spence, Helmreich, and Stuppy (1971), Ben added the category of undifferentiated and provided scoring law on both masculinity and femininity, retaining the category of androgynous for persons scoring high on both masculinity and femininity. The aforementioned authors, in revising the Ben scale, had noted that it was conceptually more accurate to treat the category of androgynous as those persons especially committed

as an androgynous sex role and to view persons with low endorsements of masculinity and femininity as uncommitted or undifferentiated.

On the BSRI, persons rate themselves on a 7-point Likert scale in terms of the applicability to themselves of 48 neutral, feminine, and masculine personality characteristics. The scale is labeled on each point and ranges from 1 (never, or almost never true) to 7 (always, or almost always true). As noted above, an undifferentiated score is obtained when scores on both masculinity and femininity are low, and an androgynous score is obtained when scores on both femininity and masculinity are high. A masculine score involves high endorsement of masculine characteristics and low endorsement of feminine characteristics, and a feminine score involves high endorsement of feminine characteristics with low endorsement of masculine characteristics.

Ben (1974) found that the scores do not reflect a social desirability response set and that the dimensions of masculinity and femininity are logically as well as empirically independent.

Ben (1974) found in a test-retest reliability study involving 38 male and 38 female college students that reliability for the indices of the BSRI over a 4-week interval ranged between .87 and .93.

Marital Adjustment and Satisfaction

The Locke-Mallory Short Form Marital Adjustment Test-

The Locke-Mallory Short Form Marital Adjustment Test was utilized to measure marital adjustment and satisfaction. The scale consists of 12 multiple-choice items characterized by a weighted linear combination. The possible scores for the scale range from 3 to 138 points. The higher the score, the higher the level of marital adjustment.

In 1951, Locke, utilizing 8 original items, 3 items adapted from Torrance, and 12 items from Burgess and Carroll, proposed a 20-item marital adjustment test. In 1968 Locke and Mallory saw a need for a brief, easy-to-administer scale that retained high reliability and validity. They utilized items with the most discrimination ability from the former test and constructed a short form marital adjustment test. A sample item from the short form of the scale is, "do you confide in your mate?" Possible answers are Almost never, Seldom, In some things, In everything.

Locke and Mallory (1968) reported a reliability for the shortened scale of .80, computed by the split-half technique and corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula. In a study using two groups of couples, one maladjusted and one well-adjusted, validity for the scale was demonstrated when the mean adjustment scores for the maladjusted group on the scale was only 31.17 whereas for the well-adjusted group the mean score was 115.13. The test's ability to

discriminate between the groups was supported further by the minimal overlap in the range of the scores of the groups—only 17 percent of the maladjusted group scoring 100 or higher and 44 percent of the well-adjusted group scoring 100 or more.

The Marital Relationship Time Line. To obtain supportive data in the form of direct behavioral measures of marital adjustment and satisfaction, a daily rating scale, developed by Ann Williams at the University of Florida in conjunction with her dissertation (1971), was utilized. The Likert-type daily rating scales ask for a subjective rating of the experience of happiness or satisfaction within the marriage over the previous 24-hour recording period. The scale includes items regarding daily rating of happiness with the marital relationship, wife, work, and a daily rating of how the subject feels his or her spouse felt about herself or himself that day. The time line asks for a log of time spent together over a continuous 14-day period with an accompanying rating or characterization of the time as pleasant, unpleasant, or neutral. Further, the subjects indicate what kinds of behaviors they liked or did not like that their spouses exhibited as well as what they would have liked the spouse to do to have made the time together more pleasant.

No tests of validity or reliability are reported for the daily recording and rating scales since the scales are

not considered to be indirect measures of satisfaction or interaction. The spouses record time together as opposed to giving an estimate or sample. The scales ask for a subjective rating of a measurable event which is the subjective experience of satisfaction within the marriage. The diary-type scaling technique is idiographic because each subject generates his or her own baseline. Current evidence suggests that this type of self-report scale has value in the study of ongoing marital interactions (Waller, Weiss, & Patterson, 1974).

Waller (1977) found that the Time Line Day Scale and the Time Line scales relating to percentages of positive and negative time significantly differentiated between happy and unhappy husbands and wives.

The Revised Satisfaction Time Line Daily Satisfaction scale: Along with the Locke-Wallace Marry Farm Marital Adjustment Test, one scale of the Time Line Daily Satisfaction scale was utilized to test the hypotheses regarding marital satisfaction. The scale asks the subject to rate himself/herself on a 5-point scale in terms of the degree of pleasantness or unpleasantness he/she experienced that day in the marital relationship. This type of scale in itself appears to offer an indication of marital happiness. A similar scale was utilized by Amis, Barber, and Jones (1971) to measure pre- and post-cohabiting couples in terms of level of marital satisfaction. Locke and Wallace (1959),

in constructing the Short Marital Adjustment Test, incorporated a scale similar to the Daily Satisfaction scale as his most heavily weighted item. The Daily Satisfaction scale samples satisfaction within the marriage on a daily basis, while the Locke scale asks the subject to respond to specific questions regarding his marriage at one point in time. The subject may be said as adopting a more general, overall view of the marriage with the Locke scale and a more day-to-day view of the marriage with the Time Line Daily Satisfaction scale. By utilizing these two scales, we obtain measures of marital satisfaction that involve both a daily and a more general view of the marriage. By using two related but somewhat different vantage points, our measurement of satisfaction may be potentially more accurate as well as being productive in terms of understanding the ways a spouse views his married satisfaction.

Marital Communication

A Marital Communication Inventory The variable of marital communication was measured through use of Bussness's (1979) A Marital Communication Inventory, a 46-item inventory designed to measure success or failure in marital communication. The author rates marital communication as "the exchange of feelings and meanings as husbands and wives try to understand one another" (p. 1). He observes that "such communication is not limited to words . . . (Silence)

it also occurs through listening, silence, facial expressions and gestures" (p. 11). Sample items reflecting the author's conception of communication include: "Does your husband/wife walk or post very much?" "Can your husband/wife tell what kind of day you have had without asking?" "Can the two of you ever sit down just to talk things over?"

There are four possible responses to each question including usually, sometimes, seldom, and never. The most favorable response (the one that indicates good communication) is given the higher score. "Usually" can be the "good" response in some cases, while in other cases it can be the unfavorable response, depending on the item content. The possible range of scores is from 0 to 144, and the higher the total score, the higher the level of marital communication.

The items in Schwartz's inventory were derived from a study of 173 married couples, using an earlier experimental form. The earlier inventory was derived from a study of the literature regarding marital communication, the author's clinical experience, and a study of the existing instruments for measurement of marital interaction. The data from the original study reveal that 45 of the 48 questions in the present inventory discriminate (at the .01 confidence level on the chi square test) between the upper and lower quartiles of the experimental group (the remaining items discriminated at the .05 level of confidence).

also, 10 of the items on the current inventory exhibit a discrimination of 10 percent or more between the upper and lower quartiles of the groups studied with the first experimental inventory. For cross validation of the retained items the mean score of the experimental group (125/18) was compared with scores earned by a comparable group. The mean of the latter group was 125.45 which supports the cross validation of the current MC2 (Rosenberg, 1969).

Further evidence for the validity of the current inventory is given in a study of two groups of 15 subjects each: the first group seeking and receiving marital counseling, the second apparently not in need of marital counseling. Using the Mann-Whitney U test, Rosenberg (1969) reported a significant difference in marital communication between the two groups, with the latter group having significantly higher marital communication than the couples in marital therapy.

The author notes one reliability study (Rosenberg, 1969). By use of the Spearman-Brown formula, a split-half correlation coefficient computed on scores of 60 subjects on the odd-numbered and even-numbered items, a coefficient of .43 was found (before correction).

See also. "Printed Test: Are Your Spouse." Following previous studies on the marital literature relating to marital understanding, a measure of understanding of spouse

was obtained by having the subjects complete a second Ben scale while pretending they were their spouse. Significant aspects of marital understanding that appear in the literature include the degree of understanding that spouses have of each other's attitudes and communications (Givens, 1971) and the degree of understanding one spouse has of the other spouse's view of him or herself and his or her role (Hyman, 1954). In Dymond's (1954) study, a measure of spousal understanding was obtained by having the subjects answer RPI items first for the self and then for the spouse. In the current investigation, by having the subjects complete a Ben scale and predict the answers of the spouse, a measure was obtained of spouses' understanding of how another's attitudes and views of themselves and their roles.

An "agreement score" was arrived at by finding the difference between the ratings given a spouse for himself or herself versus the ratings given by him or her spouse for himself or herself.

Let:

R_{11} = score on item 1 for spouse 1,

R_{12} = score on item 1 for spouse 2 (where spouse 2 is answering as if he/she were spouse 1).

then

$$\text{agreement score} = \sqrt{\frac{10}{k-1}} \quad |R_{11} - R_{12}|.$$

Self-Actualization

Personal Orientation Inventory: Self-actualization was assessed through the use of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). This personality inventory, developed by Maslow (1960), is designed to measure the construct of self-actualization. Maslow's conception of the instrument followed the theoretical guidelines of such authors as Maslow (1954, 1963) and Rogers (1951, 1961). The inventory measures the types of values, personality attributes, and behaviors seen to be important in the make-up of self-actualizing persons.

The instrument consists of 110 two-choice comparative value statements assessing particular personality characteristics associated with self-actualization. A self-actualized person is seen (a) partly as one who tends to live in the present, tends toward autonomy, uses time effectively, develops talents and capabilities, and has a benevolent view of life and of human nature. Two major scales are scored defining time and support ratios. The time ratio assesses the effective use of time in the present (a) well as relation to the past and the future. The support ratio has lower characteristics (benevolent relation personal autonomy). Subsidiary scales measure aspects of self-actualization including self-acceptance, spontaneity, and capacity for intimate contact.

As far as validity is concerned, results of Maslow's 1944 study indicated that the FCI discriminated significantly (at the .01 confidence level) between clinically judged self-actualizing and non-self-actualizing groups (in 11 of the 12 scales). Shostrom and Kopp (1948) report a study in which the FCI differentiated between two groups of respondents, one group just entering therapy and another group having had an average of two years of therapy. All of the scales differentiated between the criterion groups at the .01 level of confidence. In the same study, the RPI (at a confidence level of .01) differentiated between the groups on various scales including Depression, Schizophrenia, and Psychopathic Deviate.

Shostrom (1948) reported high test-retest reliability coefficients (.82 to .77) for a sample of college students. Illardi and Kopp (1947), in a study of student nurses re-tested on the FCI scales one year, reported test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .73 to .74 and concluded that these coefficients are within the range of those of other personality tests such as the RPI.

The FCI Self-Actualizing Values Scales

The Self-Actualizing values subscale of the FCI was used to give a more circumscribed and defined indication of the self-actualization of spouses. The SAV subscale measures the degree to which a person holds values common to self-actualized persons. It is a comprehensive subscale in that the kinds of values a person holds offer varied

information about him or herself, including what he/she sees as important in personal and societal life. Schwartz and Major (1987) reported a 10 test-retest reliability study for the BAV scale, and in a validity study by Schwartz (1988), the BAV significantly differentiated between non-self-actualizing, normal, and self-actualizing groups.

The PCI Subscales*

Self-actualizing Values (SAV). A high score reflects that the person holds values of self-actualizing people; a low score reflects that the person rejects values of self-actualizing persons.

Existentiality (Ex). The Existentiality scale measures the ability to apply self-actualizing values to one's life, and functioning as application of values. Low scores indicate rigidity, dogmatism, or comparatively lack of flexibility in holding of values.

Feelings Sensitivity (Fr). A high score notes sensitivity to one's own needs and feelings; a low score reflects insensitivity to one's needs and feelings.

Spontaneity (Sp). A high score reflects ability to express feelings in spontaneous action; a low score indicates fearfulness in behavioral expression of feelings.

Values of Man (Mo). A high score means the person has an basically good; a low score an basically bad.

*For a more detailed discussion of the subscales see Schwartz (1984).

Self-Regard (SR). A high score indicates that one takes oneself due to one's own strength as an individual; a low score indicates poor self-worth.

Self-Acceptance (SA). The Self-Acceptance subscale measures the degree of acceptance of oneself in spite of one's own limitations. A low score means one finds it difficult to accept one's own flaws. Without self-acceptance, though a person has high self-regard (which means he values his strengths), he cannot be self-actualizing as he does not also accept his weaknesses.

Acceptance of Aggression (AA). A high score indicates one accepts one's own anger or aggression as natural; a low score means one denies having these feelings.

Capacity for Intimate Contact (CI). A high score measures ability to develop meaningful and close relationships; a low score means difficulty in establishing warm, close relationships.

Syncretism (SY). A high score measures the ability to relate all objects of life meaningfully.

Other-Directedness (OD) vs. Inner-Directedness (ID). The other-directed person looks to other persons or to society (and/or authority figures) for guidance and answers. Approval by others is critical to this type of person. Inner-directedness measures an individual's ability to find sources of motivation and direction, and answers to the dilemma of life from within the self.

Support Ratio (S/R). The Support Ratio measures support orientation. The realization of actualizing persons involves some sensitivity to pleasing others and to others' reactions. The main source of motivation and action comes from the inner self. The self-actualizer has a ratio of about 1:5 (for other vs. inner-directedness). The normal person's ratio is about 1:1.5. The non-self-actualizer's ratio is 1:1. Both the normal and non-self-actualizer can adhere to social pressures and expectations, overemphasizing conformity and authority.

Time Competence (TC) vs. Time Incompetence (TI). Time Competence measures present-orientation within time, or the ability to integrate and relate meaningfully to one's past, present, and future. Inability to be time competent (or being time incompetent) involves introverted symptomatology such as isolation, guilt, aimlessness, depressive states, and withdrawal from reality into fantasy.

Time Ratio (TR/TC). The self-actualizing person is time incompetent one of every eight hours. The non-self-actualizer is time incompetent about one of every three hours, and the normal person is time incompetent about one of every five hours. The non-self-actualizing person often does not discriminate well between past, present, or future, and may be characterized by (1) guilt and/or resentment (connected with past), (2) anxiety and/or fantasy

incomes with future), or (3) shallowness and repression incomes with present.

Personality

The Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI, developed by Eysenck and Eysenck in 1975) was utilized to measure neuroticism. The EPI is a pen/pie inventory having two parallel forms and containing a 24-item neuroticism scale, a 24-item extraversion scale, and a 16-item lies scale. The EPI is a personality measurement inventory that measures personality in terms of two main (independent) dimensions: that of extroversion-introversion and that of neuroticism-stability. The two main dimensions are considered by the authors to be the most important for the measurement of personality. The authors discuss their belief that although there are other important aspects to personality, these two factors 'contribute more to a description of personality than any other set... in the non-cognitive field' (p. 13).

The dimension of extroversion-introversion resembles the constructs of Carl Jung, with subjects scoring high on extroversion tending to be outgoing, uninhibited, and group oriented, and with 'introverted' subjects being more solitary, retiring, and independent. On the neuroticism dimension—the dimension of concern to the current investigation—high scores indicate emotional instability, generalized overactivity, proneness to psychosomatic

complicata and aquaria, and instability in attentional breadthness under stress. Persons scoring low on neuroticism are categorized as being more emotionally secure and exhibiting overall good adjustment.

Spanack and Spanack (1980) discuss a study of reliability for the EPI utilizing two groups of normal (English) subjects. With the time between test and retest being about a year, the test-retest reliabilities ranged between .81 and .84 for the complete test. Utilizing the method of associated groups for a study of validity, the authors found that when independent judges assessed subjects for instability or stability and the subjects then completed the EPI, the subjects' scores on the EPI reflected the judges' categorizations. In terms of concurrent validity, Kopp (1981) found, in relating the EPI to the Personal Orientation Inventory (by Shustice, 1969), that all correlations against the Neuroticism scale were negative, with the highest correlation being -.415 between Neuroticism and Time Competence).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Five separate analyses were performed: five univariate analyses of variance for the following scales--Anxiety, Time Line Daily Interference scale, PDI, Spanack, and the Sex 'Pretest . . ."--and one multivariate analysis of variance using the subject scores from the PDI. Each

analysis was a 2x2, completely randomized factorial design (types: Androgynous vs. traditional by sex: husband vs. wife). Subsequent to the analysis of variance the a priori hypotheses were tested by use of 1- or 2-tailed t tests, depending on the hypothesis (see Hypotheses, Table 1).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Findings

Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations for subjects' scores on the various scales. Table 5 shows the results of the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance.

The comparisons of traditional and androgynous subjects revealed significant differences on the Locke scale:

$$(F = 11.34, df = 1/58, p = .002)$$

and approached significance on the MII:

$$(F = 2.81, df = 1/58, p < .05)$$

and the Time Line 3,4-scale:

$$(F = 3.71, df = 1/18, p = .07)$$

From Table 5 it can be seen that the traditional subjects scored higher than the androgynous subjects on the Locke, MII, and Time Line 3,4 scales. Thus, traditional subjects tended to report both higher marital satisfaction and higher marital communication.

The analyses of variance showed no main effect for sex and no interaction between type and sex. Only couple differences were found. Although hypotheses regarding couple differences were not included in the study, the study

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Androgynous/Traditional Exemption by Sex of Spouse

Date	Androgynous						Traditional					
	Females			Males			Females			Males		
	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
Length	108.12	18.41	201.83	101.83	22.16	201.83	125.73	18.36	201.83	119.87	18.43	201.83
Time Limit	6.6650	.88	6 0520	1.20			7.1340	1.03	7 0880	1.24		
WCT	98.32	18.78	98.71	17.62			103.80	13.84	104.10	18.33		
Raw	11.35	3.83	18.83	2.98			13.47	4.28	13.71	3.26		
Frequency	8.82	6.71	5.87	8.18			8.73	8.23	8.27	1.91		
SDW	21.87	3.43	21.85	3.88			26.88	3.87	28.68	3.50		
EX	83.83	3.56	83.80	5.17			75.48	4.81	13.83	4.88		
FI	17.07	3.88	17.87	3.83			26.88	3.85	17.87	1.87		
8	13.37	3.13	14.07	3.80			13.87	3.88	13.73	2.23		
80	23.13	3.13	13.53	3.74			13.13	3.83	28.68	1.88		
88	17.38	3.88	17.48	3.88			14.33	3.77	13.47	8.38		
80	22.73	1.58	18.13	3.88			13.87	3.88	13.87	1.88		
87	7.88	1.88	7.33	3.58			8.83	3.88	7.88	1.87		
8	16.53	3.83	18.87	3.83			17.13	3.13	14.87	3.13		
2	20.88	3.83	20.33	3.77			17.88	3.88	18.47	3.58		

NOTE: N = 18 for all tests except time limit where the N is given in parentheses.

Table 4—(continued)

Transitions		FSC Ratios	
	Forward	Ratio	
Mean	$\frac{TI}{TO} = \frac{4.20}{15.81}$	$\frac{TI}{TO} = \frac{14.81}{5}$	Mean
			$\frac{TI}{TO} = \frac{3.18}{15.43}$
Time ratio:	$\frac{TI}{TO} = \frac{1}{3\frac{1}{2}}$		Time ratio:
			$\frac{TI}{TO} = \frac{1}{3\frac{1}{2}}$
Mean	$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{12.97}{44.55}$	$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{18.87}{47.63}$	Mean
			$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{12.81}{46.53}$
Support ratio:	$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{1}{3}$		Support ratio:
			$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{1}{3}$
			$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{1}{3\frac{1}{2}}$

Table 3
Means and standard deviation summary statistics

Task	df	Type		den		Total and sig.	
		F value	p reported	F value	p reported	F value	p reported
Locals	1/16	11.04	.002*	.18	.687	.237	.630
Time Limit	2/16	3.73	.059*	.049	.837	.37	.550
Self	1/16	2.89	.103*	.26	.614	.08	.775
den	1/16	.004	.959	2.28	.154	.005	.939
tot	20/16	1.26	.318	.57	.458	1.42	.135
Dynamic	1/16	.81	.377	.45	.501	.04	.834

Note: F values for tot are subsumed into F values.

*Significant at $p \leq .05$.

**Approximate significance at $p \leq .01$

does imply that there would be differences in marital communication and in marital satisfaction according to couple type. That is, since it was predicted that $AM > TM$ and $AM > TM$ in marital satisfaction and marital communication, it would be expected that A couples > T couples in marital satisfaction and in marital communication.

The statistical results show significant differences and differences approaching significance for couples for the variables of marital satisfaction and marital communication but in opposite directions of those implied by the study. That, contrary to the expectations that traditional couples would be less happy and have lower communication in their marriages, the traditional couples were more happy and tended to have higher communication than the androgynous couples.

The following are the results of the testing for the 14 + priori hypotheses. Table 4 contains the t tests for the 4 priori hypotheses.

The first four hypotheses dealt with levels of marital satisfaction. The hypotheses related to this factor were:

Results

1. $AM > AT$ (100.11 vs. 100.93) 16.66 vs. 4.87
2. $TM > AT$ (113.71 vs. 124.87) 17.12 vs. 7.480
3. $AM > TM$ (100.11 vs. 100.93) 16.66 vs. 7.18
4. $AM > TM$ (100.11 vs. 100.93) 16.66 vs. 7.48

Table 4

Results of χ^2 Tests for the 24 π priors. Hypotheses

Labels	Time Slice	BC1	BC2	BC3	BC4 (data)	Expected
BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 1.04$	BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC1 = BC2 $\chi^2 = 0.04$
BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 1.44$	BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC2 = BC3 $\chi^2 = 0.04$
BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 1.44$	BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC3 = BC4 $\chi^2 = 0.04$
BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 1.44$	BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC4 = BC5 $\chi^2 = 0.04$
BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 1.44$	BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 0.04$	BC5 = BC6 $\chi^2 = 0.04$

^a χ^2 tests consistent with null hypothesis.

BC1 = BC2, BC2 = BC3, BC3 = BC4, BC4 = BC5, BC5 = BC6.

There was no evidence in the t tests that $TR > TD$ (hypothesis 1) or that $AD > TD$ (hypothesis 2). Thus, the study does not find that androgynous husbands have more marital satisfaction than traditional husbands or that traditional husbands have more marital satisfaction than traditional wives.

Consistent with hypothesis 3, no differences were found in marital satisfaction on the Locke or the Tim-Linc R.I. scale for androgynous husbands and wives. Thus, there was evidence that androgynous husbands and wives had equal levels of marital satisfaction.

The prediction $AD > TD$ was not supported by the one-tailed t tests. If the prediction had been made in the opposite direction, however (that is, that $TD > AD$), the t test would have been significant. There is indirect evidence in the analysis that traditional wives have greater marital satisfaction than androgynous wives.

Hypotheses 4 through 6 dealt with marital communication. The predictions for that factor were:-

TABLE

1. $AD > AD$	(108.51 vs. 108.73)
2. $TR > TR$	(103.68 vs. 104.51)
3. $AD > TR$	(98.33 vs. 103.68)
4. $AD > TR$	(108.73 vs. 104.51)

There was no evidence in the t tests that traditional husbands experienced a higher degree of marital communication than traditional wives (hypothesis 5) or that androgynous husbands experienced better communication than traditional husbands (hypothesis 7). There also was no evidence that androgynous wives experienced better communication than traditional wives (hypothesis 9). Consistent with hypothesis 3, there were no differences found between AS and AR, thus there was evidence that androgynous husbands and androgynous wives experienced equal levels of marital communication.

Hypotheses 1 through 12 dealt with differences in degree of understanding of spouse. The predictions for this factor were:

Findings

- 9. AR = TR (11.35 vs. 12.82)
- 10. TR = TM (11.47 vs. 12.51)
- 11. AR = TR (11.35 vs. 11.47)
- 12. AR = TM (12.43 vs. 12.71)

No differences were found between AS and AR, or between AR and TR, on understanding of spouse; thus for hypotheses 1 and 12 the results of the t tests were consistent with the predictions. There was no evidence to indicate that traditional husbands had less understanding of spouse than traditional wives (hypothesis 10), or that androgynous husbands had greater understanding than traditional

husbands (Hypothesis 11). As noted, it was found that endogamous husbands and endogamous wives had equal levels of understanding of spouse and that endogamous and traditional wives had equal levels of understanding of spouse (Hypothesis 4 and 12).

Hypotheses 13 through 16 predicted these differences in level of self-actualization:

13. $AE > ME$

14. $TE > ME$

15. $AE > ME$

16. $AE > TE$

No differences were found between endogamous husbands and wives in degree of self-actualization; thus hypothesis 13 was supported.

There was no significance to the results of the multivariate analysis of variance for the other predictions for the FGI. Only a univariate analysis of variance can be utilized to measure the interaction of the FGI results and the above hypotheses. Thus we due to the many scales involved in the measurement of self-actualization. Thus t tests were performed only for self-actualization of the FGI, a scale which represents an important and integral aspect of self-actualization: the SAF scale (Self-Actualizing Values). The results of testing for subjects' scores on the SAF follow.

The same predictions were tested for level of self-actualizing values.

TABLE

13.	AE = SE	(22.43 vs. 21.81)
14.	TE > TR	(22.22 vs. 20.28)
15.	AE > TR	(22.27 vs. 21.82)
16.	AE > TE	(21.41 vs. 20.80)

Consistent with hypothesis 13, no differences were found between AE and SE. Thus, there was evidence that endogamous wives and endogamous husbands had equal levels of self-actualizing values. There was also evidence that endogamous wives had higher levels of self-actualizing values than did traditional wives (hypothesis 14). The predictions AE > TR and SE = SE were both significant. No significance was found for the predictions TE > TR or AE > TE. Thus, there was no evidence that traditional husbands had higher levels of self-actualizing values than traditional wives, or that endogamous husbands had higher levels of self-actualizing values than traditional husbands.

Hypotheses 21 through 24 predicted the following differences in level of marriage:^a

^aThese marriage data (table 2) and the scale means for all spouses were averages. The low scale scores did not indicate "faking good," and there were no significant differences between spouses in terms of the scale scores.

Low scale means: SE = 2.48, AE = 2.31, TR = 2.48, TE = 2.13

Results

17.	AR + AR	(8.48 vs. 9.67)
18.	TR + TR	(8.73 vs. 9.27)
19.	AR + TR	(8.62 vs. 9.74)
20.	AR + TR	(9.67 vs. 9.37)

No significance was found for hypotheses 17 through 20 when t tests were used. Thus it was not found that androgynous husbands were less sensitive than traditional wives. There was also no evidence that androgynous husbands were less sensitive than traditional husbands or that androgynous wives were less sensitive than traditional wives.

It must be noted that a large number of significance tests were computed. When large numbers of tests are performed, the probability of falsely rejecting the null hypothesis is inflated. Thus, caution should be exercised in interpreting any single test. However, general trends were observed. In summary, they included the following.

Summary of the Results

The results of the study implied that

- A. Androgynous couples would have higher marital satisfaction than traditional couples. Contrary to our expectations, the traditional couples tended to have higher satisfaction than the androgynous couples.
- B. Androgynous couples would experience better communication than traditional couples. It was indicated,

however, that traditional couples experienced better communication than androgynous couples.

Results of the different hypotheses follow.

Level of Marital Satisfaction

1. As predicted, no differences were found between androgynous husbands and wives in terms of marital satisfaction. They had equal levels of marital satisfaction.

2. It was not found that traditional husbands had greater marital satisfaction than traditional wives. There were no differences between traditional husbands and wives in degree of marital satisfaction.

3. Androgynous husbands did not have greater marital satisfaction than traditional husbands, there were no differences between androgynous and traditional husbands in terms of marital satisfaction.

4. Androgynous wives did not have higher marital satisfaction than traditional wives. Contrary to our prediction, traditional wives had higher marital satisfaction than androgynous wives.

Level of Marital Communication

5. As predicted, the levels of communication between androgynous wives and androgynous husbands were equal.

6. It was not found that traditional husbands had greater marital communication than traditional wives, there were no differences in levels of marital communication between traditional husbands and wives.

7. Androgynous husbands did not experience better communication than traditional husbands; there were no differences between levels of communication of androgynous and traditional husbands.

8. It was not found that androgynous wives experienced better communication than traditional wives. There were no differences in degree of marital communication between androgynous and traditional wives.

Level of Understanding of Spouse

9. As was predicted, no differences were found for androgynous husbands and wives in terms of degree of understanding of spouse. The spouses had equal levels of understanding of spouse.

10. It was not found that traditional husbands had less understanding of spouse than their wives. There were no differences in levels of understanding of spouse between traditional husbands and wives.

11. It was not found that androgynous husbands had greater understanding of spouse than traditional husbands; there were no differences between androgynous and traditional husbands in terms of understanding of spouse.

12. There were no differences in level of understanding of spouse between the androgynous and traditional wives. As predicted, they were equal in degree of understanding of spouse.

Level of Self-Actualization

13. As predicted, androgynous husbands and wives did not differ in terms of level of self-actualization. Their levels of self-actualization were equal.

14. It was not found that traditional husbands had greater self-actualization than traditional wives; there were no differences between the levels of self-actualization of the traditional husbands and wives.

15. It was not found that androgynous husbands had higher levels of self-actualization than traditional husbands. There were no differences between the androgynous and traditional husbands in terms of self-actualization.

16. Androgynous wives did not have greater self-actualization than traditional wives; there were no differences between androgynous and traditional wives in terms of level of self-actualization.

Level of Self-Actualizing Values

17. As was expected, no differences were found between androgynous husbands and wives in terms of level of self-actualizing values. Androgynous husbands and wives were equal in levels of self-actualizing values.

18. Traditional husbands were not found to have higher levels of self-actualizing values than traditional wives; there were no differences in level of self-actualizing values between traditional husbands and traditional wives.

13. It was not found that androgynous husbands had higher levels of self-esteeming values than traditional husbands, there were no differences between androgynous and traditional husbands in terms of level of self-esteeming values.

14. Consistent with our expectations, androgynous wives had higher levels of self-esteeming values than traditional wives.

Level of neurosis

15. It was not found that androgynous husbands were less neurotic than androgynous wives, there were no differences found in neurosis level for androgynous spouses.

16. Traditional husbands were not found to be less neurotic than traditional wives, there were no differences between traditional spouses in neurosis level.

17. It was not found that androgynous husbands were less neurotic than traditional husbands; there were no differences in terms of neurosis level for androgynous and traditional husbands.

18. Androgynous wives were not found to be less neurotic than traditional wives, there were no differences in neurosis level between androgynous and traditional wives.

Experimental Findings

Marital Satisfaction Time-Line Data

None of the time-line sub-scores differentiated between the spouse groups (see Table 4). The directions of the differences in the means are noted, however, in order to summarize the time line data in terms of kinds found in the means.

1. The traditional husbands had lower negative time than the traditional wives.
2. The traditional husbands had lower negative time than the androgynous husbands.
3. The traditional husbands had lower positive time than the traditional wives.
4. The traditional husbands had higher positive time than the androgynous husbands.
5. The traditional wives had lower negative time than the androgynous wives.
6. The traditional wives had greater positive time than the androgynous wives.
7. The androgynous husbands had greater neutral time than the androgynous wives.
8. The androgynous husbands had greater neutral time than the androgynous wives.
9. Husbands had greater neutral time than wives.
10. Wives had greater negative time than husbands.
11. All spouses had similar amounts of time spent together.

Table 7
Results of χ^2 Tests for Four Large Polynesian Data

Individuals	Percentages expected	Percentages observed	Percentages logarithmic	Ratio prob. χ^2 test	Ratio prob. χ^2 test
78 vs. 94	-.38	.78	-.33	.57	.34
88 vs. 80	-.11	-.88	-.31	.46	-.88
78 vs. 80	-.37	-.87	.52	.67	.36
78 vs. 80	-.71	-.27	.13	1.13	-.71

Marital Satisfaction Time-Line Reports

A Time line report for each couple is presented in order to possibly eliminate the results of the current investigation. The patterning of each spouse's scores for marital satisfaction is noted and discussed, including the spouse's score for the more global view of satisfaction offered by the Locke scale, and the spouse's assessment of his or her daily satisfaction offered by the Time Line D.S. scale. The various subscales of the Time Line (i.e., ratings of segments of time together) are presented to further eliminate the daily satisfaction of the spouses.

The Locke scale scores are related to the same Locke found for well-adjusted and maladjusted spouses in his 1988 study ($\text{well-adjusted} = 138.8$, $\text{maladjusted} = 71.7$). The Locke scores are compared as well to the group means found in the current investigation for traditional and androgynous husbands and wives. The time line D.S. scores are compared to the same Williams (1977) found for happy and unhappy husbands and wives,⁴ as well as to the means found in the current investigation for the subgroup of androgynous and traditional husbands and wives participating in the Time Line scale.

⁴Williams did not find that the subscale for control was distinguished between her couple groups. Marital time scores for the current study will be discussed in relation to our subgroup mean (and to the mean of Williams' spouses), and suggestions offered as to the meaning of the spouses' control time.

The reports are discussed in terms of the determinants of the spouses' behavior, neutral, and positive tone. Stylistic qualities (e.g., modes of reports writing) and representative comments are noted where they appear to offer information regarding the spouses' views toward, and functioning within, the marriage. The occurrence and type of role conflict is noted, and the spouses' deviation from and/or adherence to, androgynous or traditional role viewpoints is discussed.

Following the reports, the findings are summarized, and themes are noted, as well, that were evident when all reports were examined together (but not evident enough in individual reports to warrant discussion on an individual basis).

Couple #17 (Androgynous)

This androgynous couple has three children. The husband is 55 and the wife is 41 years old. He is an engineer and she is an artist.

The wife's Locke score was average. She received a score of 182 which is close to her (androgynous wives) group mean of 182.9. Her score is also an midpoint between Locke's (1968) mean for unhappy and happy spouses (midpoint = 182.8). The husband's score of 84 was lower than his (androgynous husbands) group's mean (mean = 102.12), his wife's score, and Locke's (1968) mean for satisfied

spouses ($\text{mean} = 71.71$). The Locke scores indicate that the wife views her marriage overall as average in terms of satisfaction and the husband views his marriage as unhappy overall.

On the Time Line D. E. scale, the wife received a score of 5.21 vs. an androgynous wives' mean of 4.87 and vs. Williams' (1971) mean for unhappy wives ($\text{mean} = 4.44$). Her score was lower than her husband's score. The husband received a D. E. score of 4.53. His score was close to the mean for the androgynous husbands (4.44) and was above Williams' (1971) unhappy husbands' mean of 4.39 but below the happy husbands' (Williams, 1971) mean of 7.14.

The Time Line scores indicate low daily happiness ratings for the wife and average daily happiness ratings for the husband. The two scales, then, indicate opposite findings to the Locke scale. In a more global view of the marriage, the wife finds average happiness, and the husband finds low happiness. On the daily level, the husband finds average happiness, the wife, low happiness.

On the Time Line subscales, the husband's positive time was average for his subgroup. His positive time was close to Williams' (1971) mean for positive time of happy husbands and his negative time was lower than both his subgroup mean and Williams' mean for happy husbands. The wife's positive time was average for her subgroup and close to Williams' (1971) mean for positive time for happy wives. The wife's negative

time was higher than her group's mean and Williams' (1977) mean for unhappy wives. Both spouses had high positive time; but the wife had high negative time as well. Thus, again, the wife experiences more unhappiness than the husband on a daily basis. The husband's satisfaction appears to fluctuate as the subjective indicator happiness for him, the D.S. scale indicates average happiness, and the Leake scale indicates low happiness.

For the husband, positive time included socializing with friends, discussion of the relationship, his wife's support, any times of verbal and/or physical intimacy, his wife being "open and following" intimacy," and "playing" together (e.g., games or practical jokes). Negative time involved the wife being tired, or sex problems. Neutral time involved the husband wanting more openness from his wife, more sharing of her feelings and ideas with him. Neutral time generally involved the husband wanting more verbal or physical intimacy.

For the wife, positive time involved the husband sharing in household chores or child-care, the husband being "responsive to [her] sexual overtures," positive talk regarding the relationship and/or themselves, the husband's "positive attitude." The wife's negative time involved the husband being moody and irritable, the husband withdrawing, the husband "refusing to have sex." Neutral time involved wanting to be together (spend time together) and generally wanting more

class, warm contact (verbal and/or physical). The wife's comments indicated anger at her husband's "failings" i.e., "I get so mad when he retreats from me".

The time line reports for this couple appear to describe a basically androgynous marriage. Both spouses are intensely concerned with intimacy and communication; the quality of their intimacy and communication often determines whether the couple take their time together as positive or negative. We have seen these concerns (intimacy and communication) as being major concerns of the androgynous marriage (Works & Flett, 1970). The couple deviates from the androgynous model in that the wife appears to assume the sole responsibility for house and child-care, and these concerns are more appropriate to the traditional relationship (Gott, 1957; Works & Flett, 1971). Both husband and wife appear to have difficulty in the marriage.

The problems may relate to demands on the part of both husband and wife for more and better intimacy and communication. It is indicated that the spouses discuss their relationship problems, yet there is also some indication that they tend to "blame" one another for their unhappiness rather than responsibly dealing with their difficulties together. Each spouse tends to complain about the other's "withdrawal" or the other's lack of openness and/or sharing.

This appears to be a basically androgynous marriage and to be a marriage that is experiencing difficulties, apparently

in the areas of intimacy and communication. Whatever problems are experienced by the couple, the negative effects on happiness tend to be more potent for the wife on a daily vs. global level, and for the husband on a global vs. a daily level.

Couple #15 (androgynous)

In this couple, the husband is 44 and the wife is 42 years old. They have two children. Both spouses have master's degrees. Her degree is in creative writing and his is in art. Both teach at junior colleges. Their income is \$15,000 per year.

The couple's Locke scores were high, as the scores were well above 100 (most of the scores of the well-adjusted spouses were above 100 in Locke's, 1958, study) and the scores were also higher than the means for the respective groups of androgynous husbands and wives. The husband received a score of 115 (vs. a group mean of 101.51), and the wife received a score of 125 (vs. a group mean of 101.92). On the time line scale, the wife's score was higher than her subgroup mean and close to the mean for happy wives in Williams' (1977) study. She received a score of 5.77 vs. a subgroup mean of 5.00 for the androgynous wives, and vs. a happy wives group mean of 5.14. The husband's mean of 4.11 was higher than the mean for his subgroup of androgynous husbands (subgroup mean = 3.60) and his mean was close to

the mean for happy husbands in Williams' (1977) study (happy husbands mean = 7.18). Both the Locke and Fife Time Line 0-8 series revealed a happy marriage for the husband and the wife.

On the subscale of the Time Line, the couple received scores indicating happiness. The wife had higher positive time than the husband, as well as lower negative and neutral time, but both spouses were happy. The negative time of the spouses was lower than Williams' (1977) means for happy husbands and wives, and their positive time was higher than Williams' means for happy husbands and wives. The spouses were also happy, as compared to their subgroups in terms of positive and negative time.

For the wife, positive time involved being listened to, the husband accepting her feelings, laughing together, exchanging ideas, closeness, the husband helping with dinner, and the husband serving her breakfast in bed. Her neutral time involved wanting more attention, or wanting more verbal or physical intimacy. Her negative time involved the husband being distant.

For the husband, positive time related to good conversation, the wife listening to him and considering his point of view, and making up after an argument. He also enjoyed his wife's happiness regarding job advancements, his wife sending him support, good dinners, and affection. Neutral time for

the husband related to his wife being tired, or both of them being rushed. Negative time involved the wife being away, arguments, and the wife shouting at him.

Overall, this marriage appears to be basically androgynous. With the exception of the wife appearing to have more of a responsibility for household duties (more applicable to the traditional wife role--Mills & Flax, 1978), the couple exhibits characteristics of an androgynous marriage. They both value intimacy and communication, and they both nurture and support one another (values applicable to the androgynous marriage--Mills & Flax, 1978).

As noted, the couple are happy on all measures of marital satisfaction. The couple's five hour commentary reveals few problems in the marriage. The spouses rarely argue, and most of their time together is spent in pleasant conversation. The comments reveal verbal and physical intimacy and deep concern for one another (e.g., the husband notes his "great relief and joy" regarding his wife's success on her job as it "meant a lot to him") and he "knew what this meant to her." Overall, this couple appears to be a happily married androgynous couple.

Couple #18 (Androgynous)

In this couple, the husband is 31 and the wife is 30 years old. There are two children. Both spouses teach college and have master's degrees. The approximate income is \$40,000 per year.

The couple had high scores on the Locke scale. The scores were higher than the means for their groups of unhappy-as well as happy. The wife's score of 139 was above Locke's (1954) mean for well-adjusted spouses (mean = 135.4) and the husband's score of 128 was well above 108 (most of Locke's well-adjusted spouses scored above 100). The group means for the spouses were 121.93 for the wife and 108.13 for the husband. The wife's score was higher than her husband's and was very high as compared to her group mean. The husband's score was high as compared to his group mean.

The couple's Time line 3.5. scores contrasted with their Locke scores. The husband received a score of 3.75 (vs. a subgroup mean of 3.65) and the wife received a score of 3.71 (vs. a subgroup mean of 3.61). Their 3.5. scores were lower than their subgroup means and were lower than the mean scores for unhappy wives (mean = 3.66) and unhappy husbands (mean = 3.66) in Williams' (1977) study. Although the spouses rated themselves as very happy on their overall view of their marriages, they did not rate themselves as happy on the day-to-day level of assessment of marital satisfaction (as measured by the Time line).

The calculation of the Time line revealed that both spouses had low percentages of positive time as compared to their group means. Their percentages of positive time were also lower than the positive time percentages of Williams' (1977)

mean for unhappy husbands and unhappy wives. The husband's percentage of positive time was higher than his subgroup mean. Both spouses' percentage of neutral time were very high in comparison to the mean of their subgroups and to Williams' (1977) spouses' mean. The patterning of the husbands' scores of the time line supported the impression that this couple was happy when viewing their marriage from a global perspective, but that they were unhappy on a day-to-day basis.

The husband appeared to value expressions of love and affection, celebration and conversation, deep and intimate discussions, and the wife being a good hostess for a party. Neutral time for the husband involved watching more verbal or physical intimacy or wanting the wife to make dinner or serve him coffee. Also involved in neutral time was the wife allowing her career to intrude on their time together. Negative time involved the wife neglecting household duties, the children, or himself. The wife's involvement in her career could be negative as well as neutral. Negative time also included an argument and the wife criticising him. As he says, he "hasn't stood up for himself when she criticises him and yells at him."

For the wife, positive time included affection, attention-ness, messages, the husband helping in the house, pleasant conversation, sharing community projects, and intimate discussions.

Negative time for the wife involved the husband not helping with housework or performing mechanical activities around the house. During neutral time, the wife also objected to the husband's lack of organization and "sloppiness," neutral time could also involve wanting more communication and deeper understanding from him. Negative time for the wife involved arguments, the husband's negative attitude toward her career, the husband's difficulty in handling practical worldly matters (and coming to her for advice), and the husband's refusing to share in taking care of the children at times.

This marriage appears to be involved in conflicts related to role dysfunction. The husband exhibits a mixture of androgynous and traditional role responses. He values communication and intimacy between himself and his wife and yet also values the wife having the main responsibility for house and child-care. Intimacy and communication are appropriate goals for an androgynous husband, and the wife being responsible for house and child-care are values appropriate to the traditional husband (Glick & Fiske 1979, Benin 1987).

The husband may be experiencing the inner conflict and anxiety that accompany intra-role conflict for the presence of contrasted role attributes. The issue of intra-role conflict was studied by Gross et. al. (1980) who found that ambivalent roles created anxiety and misadjustment. The wife

appears to be strictly androgynous, valuing communication and intimacy, career, sharing of chores and child-care, and independence for both herself and her spouse. These kinds of attitudes are appropriate to the androgynous wife and she may, therefore, not be experiencing the latent conflict of male-role difficulties.

Both spouses may experience conflicts related to role expectations and enactment. Tharp and Ellis (1984) found that lack of enactment of role expectations (as well as role conflict, generally, within marriage) can influence marital dissatisfaction. In this marriage, the spouses reveal conflicting role expectations regarding one another's roles, and a lack of enactment of role expectations. The husband, for example, expects the wife to accept responsibility to perform household duties and child-care, yet finds it difficult to get his expectation enacted in the marriage (as the wife does not expect to assume full responsibility for house and child-care). Similarly, the wife expects the husband to share in house and child-care, but the husband expects not to share, and the wife's expectations are, therefore, not met.

The role problems of the couple and/or other difficulties appear to influence the couple's satisfaction within marriage mainly on the day-to-day level. In a global view, as noted earlier, they see themselves as happy.

This androgynous couple appears to have limited happiness. They seem to be experiencing role conflict, and although they

feel they are happy when viewing their marriage globally, on the day-to-day level they experience difficulties and unhappiness.

Couple 88 (androgynous)

In this couple, the husband is 38 and the wife is 33 years old. The husband works as a newspaper editor, and the wife as a part-time secretary. Their income is \$14,000 per year. They have no children.

The husband received a Locke score of 124. This score is well above 100 (94% of Locke's, 1959, well-adjusted group had scores above 100). The husband's score is higher than the mean score for androgynous husbands (mean = 101.11). The husband's score was much higher than the wife's Locke score. The wife received a Locke score of 87. The wife's score was much lower than the mean score for androgynous wives (mean = 103.93). Her score was lower than 100, and most of Locke's well-adjusted spouses (1959) had scores below 100. The Locke scores indicate happiness for the husband and an unhappiness for the wife in terms of overall view of satisfaction in the marriage.

The husband's Tim Line S.S. score was 5.8. This score was lower than the mean for traditional husbands of 6.64 and was lower than Williams' mean (1971) for unhappy husbands (mean = 6.30). The wife's S.S. score was lower than her husband's score. She received a score of 4.71. Her score was

lower than the mean score for her group (mean = 4.62), and her score was lower than Williams' (1977) mean for unhappy wives (mean = 4.46).

The Locke scores indicate unhappiness for the wife and happiness for the husband, but the Time Line S.D. scores indicate unhappiness for both husband and wife. Thus, both on a daily basis and in a more global view of her marriage, the wife rates herself as unhappy. The husband rates himself as happy in an overall view of the marriage but as unhappy on the day-to-day level. On both measures the wife rates herself as less happy than the husband.

The husband's percentage of positive time was higher than his wife's percentage, higher than his subgroup's percentage, and higher than Williams' (1977) mean for happy husbands. The wife's positive time was lower than her subgroup's mean and lower than Williams' mean for unhappy wives. The husband's negative time was higher than that of the mean for his subgroup and was close to the mean for unhappy husbands in Williams' study. The wife's negative time was unusually high. It was much higher than her husband's negative time as well as being much higher than her subgroup mean and Williams' (1977) mean for unhappy wives.

The subscales revealed high positive and high negative time for the husband and low positive time and very high negative time for the wife. The subscale scores add support to the evidence for a very unhappy marriage for the wife. The

husband's subacute scores reveal happiness and unhappiness as do his G.E. and Locke scores. Much of his time is positive, but he also has a great deal of negative time. The marriage appears to be an ambivalent experience for him.

The positive time for the wife included conversation, praise, sex, sharing ideas, the husband listening to her point of view, flattery in front of friends, and laughing together. Negative time included being ignored by the husband, the husband's domination of conversations, her "putting her down," and dealing with her husband's relatives. Neutral time for the wife involved the husband "preparing instead of talking" and not listening to her point of view.

For the husband, positive time included conversation, sharing experiences of the day, good dinners, sex, the wife "having a good attitude." Negative time for the husband included discussions about negative aspects of the marriage and the wife's complaints. Neutral time involved visiting with conversation.

There appear to be mixed attitudes in this marriage with both husband and wife expressing traditional and androgynous ideas. The wife expresses desire for independence and commitment to equality (even in a very angry instant, e.g., "I screamed at him for putting me down"), but her comments also reveal childlike dependency and needs for reassurance. She does not want her husband to dominate a conversation or to

enough her point of view, but she often demands reassurance as to her value. Her dependency and need for reassurance are more appropriate to traditional women (Bem, 1975; Olick & Pratt, 1980), and her desires for equality and good communication are more appropriate to the androgynous role (Bem, 1975; Tuguri, 1978). The husband, similarly, values his wife and himself talking together and sharing ideas, yet he also values his wife's heterosexuality and cooking abilities which is more appropriate to the traditional husband (Olick & Pratt, 1980; Roth, 1987).

Perhaps, the wife's unhappiness and the husband's difficulties result in part from the conflicts presented by the couple's ambivalent role patterns. Intra-role conflict and role expectation and enactment problems may be occurring. Such studies as those by Gross et al. (1984) and Benzerouky (1984) note anxiety and misadjustment generated by intra-role conflicts. The spouses experience the simultaneous presence of the incompatible roles of androgyny and traditionalism. The issue of the enactment of role expectations (found by such authors as Orr, 1980, and Sharp & Olick, 1984, to be related to marital satisfaction) may also be involved. The spouses' roles are in a state of confusion. Thus, the enactment of expectations for self and spouse is made difficult, with neither spouse certain of what roles to play or what roles he/she wants the spouse to play. It appears that

whatever problems are occurring in the marriage, the wife is affected more than the husband, as her scores on all satisfaction scales indicate less happiness for her than for her husband.

Couple 126 (Androgynous)

In this couple, the husband is 33 and the wife is 31 years old. The wife works as an economist and the husband is an engineer. Their income is \$24,000 per year. They have no children.

The spouses had high Locke scores. The husband's score was 131 vs. an androgynous husbands' mean of 102, and the wife's score was 131 vs. an androgynous wives' mean of 102.5. The husband's score was above 100 (64% of Locke's, 1970, well-adjusted spouses had scores above 100), and the wife's score was above the mean score for Locke's well-adjusted spouses (mean = 113.5). The wife's score was higher than her husband's score, and although both of the spouses had scores that were higher than the means for their groups of traditional spouses, the wife's score was higher in comparison to her group's mean than was the husband's score in comparison to his group's.

The spouses received scores on the Fine Line S.S. scale that were higher than Williams' (1971) mean for happy husbands and happy wives. The husband received a score of 1.03 vs. a

happy husbands mean of 7.10 and the wife received a score of 7.36 vs. a happy wives mean of 7.34. The spouses' scores were higher than their subgroup means for the S.S. scale. The husband's score of 8.5 contrasted with a subgroup mean of 8.08, and the wife's score of 7.92 contrasted with a subgroup mean of 8.47. The S.S. items and the Locke scales for this couple indicate happiness. The Locke score indicates that the wife is especially happy when she views her marriage overall, although her daily happiness is also happy. The wife's overall view of her satisfaction is higher than her husband's view. As far as the various subscales of the Tien line are concerned, the patterning of the scores supports the evidence for a happy marriage. The couple had the highest positive time percentages and the lowest negative time percentages for their subgroups. The spouses' negative percentages were less than those of Williams' (1977) happy husbands and wives and their positive percentages were higher than those for happy husbands and wives in Williams' (1977) study. (The couple had the lowest percentages of neutral time for their subgroups as well.) By all measures of marital adjustment, including the Locke scale, the Tien line S.S. scale, and the subscales of the Tien line, the couple had a very happy marriage.

For the wife, positive time included affection, laughing together, cultural projects shared by the couple, the couple being active politically, social occasions with friends,

sharing ideas with the husband, the husband helping with chores, the husband serving her coffee in bed, compliments, and the husband's gentleness and politeness. Negative time involved an argument about who should call a friend. Neutral time involved the wife being uncomfortable regarding her husband's disagreement with a friend.

For the husband, positive time involved affection, good conversation, the wife discussing her views and feelings with him, sharing a cultural project, reassurance, and good dancing. Negative time involved the wife not listening to him. Neutral time involved the husband wanting the wife to talk more as well as to be "more pleasant."

The Time Line comments reveal that, for the most part, the couple live out an androgynous relationship. It does appear, however, that the wife has the primary responsibility for the household chores (appropriate to traditional wives--Richs & Platt, 1976). The androgyny of the spouses is revealed in their mutual appreciation of communication, their enjoyment of their intimacy and discussion about one another, their mutual respect, concern for and equality toward one another, and their overall commitment to understanding and developing themselves and their relationship. The latter characteristics are appropriate for an androgynous couple (Ries, 1978; Richs & Platt, 1976; Seth, 1977).

The Time Line commentary reveals a basically androgynous marriage, and the satisfaction scales indicate happiness.

(Continued)

The husband in this couple is 23 years old and is an engineering graduate student. The wife is also 23 years old and is a graduate student in social work. Their income is approximately \$4,000 per year. They have no children.

On the Locke scales, the husband received a score of 136 vs. a traditional husband's mean of 118-79, and the wife received a score of 136 vs. a traditional wives group mean of 124.40. The wife's score was about average for her group, but the husband had a high score in comparison to the mean for his group. The Locke scales were well above 100 (most of Locke's, 1918, well-adjusted spouses had scores above 100). Both spouses' Time Line S.S. scores were high in comparison with their subgroup means. The wife received a score of 4.50 vs. a subgroup mean of 3.48, and the husband received a score of 4.8 vs. a subgroup mean of 3.12. The spouses' Time Line S-S. scores were above the means for the happy husbands and wives in Williams' (1977) study (happy husbands mean = 3.30; happy wives mean = 3.18).

The couple had high scores on both the Time Line S-S and the Locke scales; they appear to be happy on both a daily and a global level.

The husband's subscales indicated that he was very happy. He had the highest percentage of positive time for his subgroup, and his percentage of negative time was low

in comparison to her subgroup of nonmarital husbands. Her positive time percentages were greater than Williams' mean for happy husbands' positive time, and his negative time percentages was lower than Williams' mean for happy husbands' negative time. His neutral time was lower than that of any of the husbands in his subgroup. He appeared to have mostly happy time, with very little negative time and only a slight amount of neutral time. Overall, he had positive time, and if his time was not positive, he was usually experiencing neutral time.

The wife's positive time was higher than the mean for her subgroup and higher than Williams' mean for happy wives. Her negative time was lower than her subgroup mean and lower than Williams' mean for negative time for happy wives. Her neutral time was average for her subgroup (and average in comparison to the neutral time of Williams' spouses). For the most part, the wife had positive time; some of her time was neutral, and she experienced negative time on very few occasions.

The patterning of the Time Line schedule supports the evidence for a happy marriage on a daily level for the couple.

For the husband, positive time could encompass an entire day (or entire days) with his wife. This type of pattern was unusual for the husbands in his subgroup. His comments about the positive time include his appreciation

of his wife's "affectionateness" and her "happy attitude." He enjoyed sex and affection, reading, newspaper, her being a good business, her "not wanting to leave him to go to school." His negative time involved brief arguments; his neutral time involved the wife being sick and the wife "withdrawing" from a discussion.

For the wife, positive time involved affection, dinner, sex, being together, sex, reading, compliments, flattery, a crowd of friends, appreciation of her cooking, the husband serving her breakfast in bed, the husband's concern over her illness. Her neutral time involved wanting the husband to understand her better and to listen more during arguments. Negative time included the husband not respecting her feelings and the husband "putting [her] down."

The couple's comments indicate a traditional marriage--the wife has the main responsibility for housework and for the expressive-maintenance area of the marriage and looks to the husband for validation of her worth. The husband, although he is still a student and is not the breadwinner, appears traditional in his expectations of being nurtured and served by the wife. (This pattern is appropriate to the traditional husband--Hicks & Piers, 1979; Gott, 1993.) The spouses' comments and modes of expression appear to indicate that they feel great affection for one another. They enjoy being together and can spend great amounts of time together pleasantly.

They both value communication to a degree; the wife enjoys good conversations and the husband does not wish the wife to withdraw from a discussion. The marriage is not without intimacy and communication and understanding, although these elements may not be as developed and emphasized as would be expected in an endogamous relationship.

The wife had few complaints, but she had more complaints than the husband, and, as noted, her satisfaction, although high, appeared to be slightly lower than that of her husband. Her complaints seemed to focus on desires for more understanding and respect from the husband.

Essentially, this appears to be a traditional marriage and one that is not lacking in intimacy and communication. The spouses appear to have a happy traditional marriage.

Couple 113 (Traditional)

In this couple the husband is a real estate agent and the wife is a writer. The couple's income is \$25,000 per year. The wife is 38 and the husband is 36 years old. They have no children.

The husband had a low locus score; he received a score of 43. His score was below 100, and most of Jones's (1971) subtyped spouses received scores below 100. His score contrasts greatly to the mean for his subgroup (mean = 110-74). The husband's five Locus Q-2 score was 3-53, which was higher than the mean for his subgroup and higher than Williams' (1971) mean for happy husbands. The wife's locus

score was high. She received a score of 135, which approximated Lurie's (1988) mean for happy spouses (mean = 135.93). Her score was much higher than her husband's score, and it was also higher than her group's mean (mean = 124.87). The wife's h.b. score was lower than the mean for her subgroup and was close to the mean for happy wives in Williams' (1975) study. Both spouses had percentages of positive time that were higher than Williams' mean for happy husbands and wives and higher than the subgroups' means for positive time. The spouses had negative time that was lower than Williams' mean for happy spouses and lower than the mean for their subgroups.

on the global level the husband was unhappy, the wife very happy. In terms of day-to-day satisfactions, both spouses were happy.

Positive time for the husband involved the wife performing serving functions for him as well as "leaving him alone now and then." Positive times also involved socializing with friends and resolution of an argument. Several times involved the husband's need to rest, and this time would have been more positive if his wife would have "left [him] alone." Negative time involved the wife complaining about his late hours or about his drinking. The wife involved in her positive time activities similar to those that her husband included, she enjoyed socializing, resolution of arguments, and serving dinner to the husband and

being attentive to him. She also valued compliments and flattery, the husband's "good words," the husband "paying attention to [her]," affection, and help with chores. Shared time for the wife involved wanting more attention; negative time involved the husband's bad words. The wife was slightly more expressive and revealing of personalized information in her reports than was her husband. However, both spouses gave limited information regarding perceptions of self or relationship, discussing the marriage and their own feelings in a somewhat shallow manner (e.g., "I liked when he/she kissed me goodbye this morning").

The acceptance by both spouses of the respective activities of nurturance, caretaking, and expressive behaviors as the part of the wife and dominance, and being the breadwinner and recipient of caretaking and nurturance, as the part of the husband, and the "repressive" role (indicating a possible lack of commitment to self and/or relationship development) of the spouses' reports, all suggest that the spouses are living out traditional roles. It is noted that both spouses collected that same degree of intimacy and communication was important to them (e.g., the husband valued "conversation," and both spouses valued resolutions of arguments).

This appears to be a traditional marriage and to be a traditional marriage that has some intimacy and communication.

The wife appears to be happy on all levels of satisfaction: the husband is unhappy when viewing his marriage on the global level. The husband's Time Line comments reveal that he is concerned with having more time on himself. It may be that although he endows his marriage as the day-to-day level, when viewing his marriage from a more global perspective he realizes that he would like to have (or needs to have) more time by himself. Perhaps this kind of need signals problems for the husband in the marriage or, perhaps, he is simply expressing a need that is not being fulfilled.

couple #14 (transitional)

The spouses in this couple are both 34 years old. The husband is an engineer, and the wife is a housewife. They have two children. Their income is \$12,800 per year.

Both spouses' Locke scores were very high. The scores were higher than the mean scores for the well-adjusted group in Locke's (1958) study (mean = 135-51). The husband had a Locke score of 166, and the wife had a Locke score of 143. The Locke scores were also high in comparison to the mean for the spouses' respective groups (of transitional husbands and wives). The husband's score contrasted with his group mean (mean = 125.26), and the wife's score contrasted with her group mean (mean = 134.87). The spouses' Time Line 5-8 scores were, respectively, average and higher than the mean for their groups; the husband received a score of 7.18 vs. a group mean of 7.13, and the

wife received a score of 8.1 vs. a subgroup mean of 7.08. Both spouses' Time Line S.S. scores were higher than Williams' (1971) means for happy spouses (happy husbands mean = 2.32, happy wives mean = 2.18). Both the Jacks and Time Line S.S. scales indicate that the couple have a happy marriage.

On the Time Line subscales the husband claimed no negative time, and the wife, low negative time. The spouses' scores for negative time were lower than the subgroup means and than Williams' means for happy spouses. The husband had positive time that approached the mean for his subgroup and Williams' mean for happy husbands. The wife's positive time was higher than her husband's positive time, higher than the mean for her subgroup, and higher than Williams' (1971) mean for happy wives. The husband had more neutral time than the wife. The subscales furnished further evidence for a happy marriage on the daily level.

The husband's positive time included the wife being a good hostess for company, good dinners, "nice long talks," the wife having a pleasant attitude, and both spouses playing with the children. Neutral time for him could have been made more positive if he could have talked with his wife more, if she had's been such (which would be hard to care for the children), if she had gotten breakfast, if she had gotten up earlier to be with him, and if she

bed dinner waiting before she went out shopping. For the wife, positive time meant her husband's serving her breakfast in bed, his being gentle, his listening to her opinions, his bragging about her in front of their friends, his feeding the children for her, conversation, and his helping with dinner. Her neutral time could have been more positive if the husband had "volunteered to stay home when [she] was sick," "stopped complaining," and been more attentive. Her negative time involved wanting more attention from the husband.

This appears to be a very traditional marriage, following the model described by Ricks and Flatt (1971). The husband's role is that of provider. He shares chores and child-care infrequently (and reluctantly) and appreciates his wife serving him. The wife is the manager of home and children and has the main expressive role. She appears to have an important role in their social life, contacting friends and playing the business. She also places "family nights" so that the husband can enjoy the children. She is thankful for (and doesn't expect) help her husband may offer with chores and for any compliments.

It may be noted that although the couple do not have intimacy and communication as crucial goals, they are somewhat concerned with such elements. The spouses enjoyed their "alone" and at times missed having the opportunity

for a conversation. They seem to be a traditional couple whose marriage is not falling in communication. It is noted that aspects of the couple's traditionalism (i.e., aside from the distribution of role behaviors) were apparent in the reports. The comments and activities of the couple illustrate a concern with convention and social roles, and the couple, brief, impersonal comments about themselves and the marriage may reveal a lack of deep commitment to self (and/or relationship) development (these are characteristics of traditional spouses—Locke & Flett, 1978). Overall, this appears to be a traditional marriage and to be a marriage in which the spouses experience happiness on both global and daily levels.

Couple #12 (Traditional)

This is a young traditional couple who have one child. The husband is in the printing business; the wife is a housewife. Both husband and wife are 28 years old. Their yearly income is \$19,000.

The couple had relatively low Locke scores, both scores were just below 100 (the midpoint between the maladjusted and well-adjusted spouses in Locke's 1978 study was 100.0) and the scores were lower than the traditional spouses' mean scores. The wife's score of 98 was especially low for her group (mean = 104.67), but the husband's score of 98 also contrasted with his group's mean of 113.11. The Fun Line R.E. scores included the husband's score of 7.08, which was

average for his subgroup (mean = 7.13), and the wife's score of 8.6, which was higher than her subgroup mean of 7.86. The husband's 8.6 score approximated the mean for the happy husbands in Williams' (1972) study (mean = 7.18), and the wife's 8.6 score was higher than Williams' mean for happy wives (mean = 7.64). Thus, on the global level the spouses feel that their marital happiness is average, yet on the daily level they both experience satisfaction.

The subscales of the Time Line supported the evidence for high daily satisfaction. Both spouses had high percentages of positive time on the Time Line, with the wife's percentage being highest for her subgroup, and both spouses' percentages being higher than the means Williams (1971) found for happy husbands and wives. The spouses claimed no negative time and average to low neutral time. Thus, most of their time was rated as positive, and when their time was not positive it was neutral rather than positive. The high daily satisfaction of the couple contrasts to the average global satisfaction.

For the wife, the positive time could involve the husband's sharing of household chores and child-care. The chores were simple (e.g., helping to set the table) as was the kind and amount of child-care he participated in ("playing with the kids before I got up"). Positive time for her also included affection and sex, compliments,

and favorable comparisons of herself with other women. She also acted as positive "huswomans" when she was ill. Some of their positive time involved watching T.V., going to church, and having dinner at home in the evening. During her neutral time the wife noted she had needed the husband to "pay more attention" to her, or to be with her more. As noted, she had no negative time.

For the husband positive time involved dinner, sex, attention, the wife "sharing [his] interests" (such as bowling), and family activities (such as Thanksgiving celebrations). There were no notations regarding any negative time, and the neutral time was discussed as relatively boring, with "not much going on," or involved the husband wanting the wife to "tell him what she wants more." Though both husband and wife kept their comments brief and rather simple, the husband's comments were more brief than those of the wife. Both spouses' responses reflected little self-disclosure or emphasis on self- or relationship development, although the husband did include a request (for neutral time) indicating a wish for more communication: "I wish [the wife] would express her needs more often."¹

The information and patterns presented in these reports appear to reveal a traditional marriage. The wife has the main responsibility for house and child-care, serves and ministers to the husband, and shares his interests. The

appreciates his occasional help but does not realize any negative or neutral tones in relation to wanting more help with the children or the chores.

The husband enjoys the wife serving him and sharing his interests. He appears solely to want the role of breadwinner and recipient of nurturance. He enjoys his family but does not seek to participate in child-care or to perform household tasks. The respective role attributions of the spouses adhere tightly to the descriptions of traditional husband and wife marital roles, as noted by Hinde and Platt (1966) and Gott (1971), where the husband has the main responsibility as provider, rarely engages in child-care or housework, and expects support and nursing from his wife; and the wife is responsible for the care of the children and the house and supports and aids him in the husband.

As noted, there was a contrast between daily and global satisfaction. One possible explanation is offered. Self-awareness, intimacy, and communication are not, per se, the goals of the traditional couple (Hinde & Platt, 1972; Gott, 1977). However, we may expect that some awareness and communication must exist for personal and marital happiness to occur. The lack of intimacy and communication may occur in the spouses when they embrace their attributions overall. Their style appears to be rather regressive and conservative.

and the couple may only become aware of their need for more intimacy more easily on the global vs. the daily level.

This couple appears to be a traditional couple who may have some limitations on their marital happiness that may relate to a lack of intimacy and communication.

Couple 51 (Traditional)

In this couple, both spouses work as newspaper editors. Their income is \$45,000 per year and they have three children. The husband is 54, and the wife is 51 years old.

The spouses' Locke scores seem to indicate average happiness. The wife received a score of 18 vs. a group mean of 18.87, and the husband received a score of 101 vs. a group mean of 113-71. The wife's score contrasts more with the mean for her group than does the husband's score with the mean for his group. Both spouses' scores are close to the midpoint between Locke's (1995) maladjusted and well-adjusted spouses (midpoint = 103.8).

The wife received a Fine Line D-8 score of 7.13 vs. a subgroup mean of 7.46, and the husband received a score of 4.81 vs. a subgroup mean of 7-12. The husband's score was much lower than the mean for his subgroup. The wife's score was close to Williams' mean for happy wives (mean = 7.14), and the husband's score was lower than Williams' mean for unhappy husbands (mean = 4-19). The 5-5- scores indicate happiness for the wife and unhappiness for the

husband. Thus, both spouses seem to find average satisfaction in the marriage when viewing the marriage overall, and on the daily basis the wife finds above average happiness and the husband finds unhappiness.

On the time line subscales, the husband and wife were found to have positive percentages that were lower than the means for their subgroups. The husband's score was close to Williams' (1971) mean for unhappy husbands, and the wife's score was slightly lower than Williams' mean for unhappy wives. The husband's negative time was lower than the mean for his subgroup and Williams' mean for happy husbands, and the wife's negative time was higher than the mean for her subgroup and higher than Williams' mean for unhappy wives.

In sum, overall, on the global level the spouses' happiness is about average. The wife seems to feel that her daily happiness is high, however, her ratings of her satisfaction in terms of segments of time coincide with her daily satisfaction ratings: that is, when she examines segments of time with her husband, she finds high negative time and low positive time, but at the close of a day she tends to rate her satisfaction for that day as high. The husband seems to feel that his daily happiness is low; however, his ratings of time segments indicate both happiness (low negative time) and unhappiness (low positive time).

Thus, the spouses' ratings of their marital satisfaction appear to coincide when they evaluate their relationship on the daily level: they experience both happiness and unhappiness on the day-to-day level.

Positive time for the wife involved the husband sharing as chores, his "being gentle," conversation, being listened to, and sex. Negative time involved the husband yelling, arguments, and not being listened to. Neutral time meant she wanted help with the chores. For the husband, positive time involved affection, good dinner, the wife's popularity at a meeting, the wife agreeing with him, the wife's attentiveness, and the wife being a good hostess. Negative time involved arguments, and neutral time involved wanting to talk more or "being activities."

The wife's concerns indicate that she is concerned with communication and sharing of household chores in the marriage. This concern is more appropriate to the androgyne role (Hicks & Flors, 1970; Katz, 1967; Lee, 1971) since the wife is traditional in basic sex-role stereotypes according to the sex role, she may be experiencing intra-role conflict between her traditionalism and her violating of androgynous role behaviors (Stallan such as those by Eisenovsky et al., 1966, discuss the issue of intra-role conflict or the conflict that is experienced by a person who possesses two sets of conflicting role

accidental). The husband appears to be traditional in role orientation. He is contented with good dinner, with the wife being a good hostess, and generally with being served by and understood by the wife (these responses are appropriate to the traditional husband--Wong, 1987; Noller & Flett, 1988).

The couple may experience role conflict in that the wife expects the husband to be more androgynous, and, in turn, he expects her to be more traditional. The mixed role expectations and the resultant potential for difficulty in role enactment in the marriage may be a source of conflict for the spouse (the issue of role expectation and enactment, and role conflict, generally, is examined in studies such as those by Tharp & Olin, 1984, and Ort, 1990).

Overall, this couple is in a marriage in which the husband is traditional and the wife values both traditional and androgynous role viewpoints. Perhaps the complex patterning of the couple's marital satisfaction scores (i.e., average overall happiness; high and low satisfactions on the daily level) is related to the confusion engendered by the mixed roles in the marriage.

Couple 13 (Traditional)

In this couple, the husband is 37 years old and the wife is 33 years old. He works as an employment counselor, and she is a part-time student. Their income is \$18,000

per year. They have no children.

The wife's Locke score and Time Line B-K scores were lower than the mean scores for traditional wives. Her Locke score was 114 (vs. a group mean of 124.87), and her Time Line B-K score was 5.2 (vs. a subgroup mean of 7.48). The husband's Locke score was average for his group of traditional husbands as he received a score of 113 (vs. a group mean of 115.73). His Time Line B-K score was lower than the mean for his subgroup. He received a mean of 6.1 (vs. a subgroup mean of 7.13). The spouses' Time Line B-K scores were lower than Williams' (1971) mean for unhappy husbands and wives. The couple's Locke scores indicate above average happiness (as most of Locke's well-adjusted spouses scored above 100 in his 1968 study).

Thus, the couple appears to have some happiness when viewing their marriage on a global level, yet on the day-to-day level both spouses experience unhappiness.

Evidence of discord and unhappiness in the marriage is suggested by the results of the Time Line subscales: both spouses' percentages of positive time were very low in comparison to their subgroup mean and were lower than Williams' (1971) mean for unhappy husbands and wives. Both spouses' percentages of negative time were very high in comparison to their subgroup mean, and their negative time percentages were higher than Williams' mean for

unhappy husbands and wives. The husband had a very high percentage of neutral time as compared to both his subgroup mean and to the mean for the spouses in Williams' study. The wife tended to have more negative time than the husband, and the husband tended to have more neutral time than the wife.

The patterning of the various scores of the time line supports the evidence for dissatisfaction on the daily level and satisfaction on the global level for these spouses.

Negative time for the wife included conversation, sharing about the day, appreciation of her housemaking and accomplishments about her cooking, sex and affection, and reassurances regarding being loved by the husband. The only comment made by the wife regarding her negative time involved her dislike of her husband's "bad mood" with friends; her negative time included her husband's "withdrawing from [her]," his silence, lack of affection, his "bad moods," and her "yelling at [her]." For the husband, positive time included their "supporting each other emotionally," sex and affection, "happy conversation," her lessons at school, and sharing about the day. Negative time for the husband included arguments, the wife's "stomping at [him]," and her not wanting to help him with his work. His neutral time, although frequent, is not commented

upon except for one note that he wished his wife "would be in a nicer mood." It should be noted that ordinarily if the wife saw a part of the day as a negative time with the husband, the husband rated the same time as neutral also, whereas the wife would comment about the negative time with descriptions of conflict. The husband would often rate the same time as neutral and not indicate the presence of conflict.

Overall, the time diaries reveal elements of a traditional marriage with the wife having and accepting the responsibility for housework and the husband having the instrumental role as provider. The wife appears to be submissive at times and dependent upon the husband's approval. These characterizations and role behaviors are appropriate to the traditional couple (Gruke & Platt, 1976; Gott, 1977). However, the couple appear as well to be concerned with mutual reassurance, intimacy, and communication to a degree unusual for traditional spouses. Such concerns are ordinarily found in the androgynous relationship (Bem, 1975; Gruke & Platt, 1976). The husband's positive time was when the spouses are "supporting each other emotionally" or that they had a "happy, successful conversation." The wife's time is positive when there is "good conversation" or when they "share about the day." The wife reacts negatively if the husband shuts her out "by withdrawing emotionally and/or refusing to talk with her."

The spouses may be involved in role conflict. They both may experience wife-role conflict (which has been noted by Gross et al., 1988, and Komarovsky, 1988, to relate to anxiety and unhappiness). Examples of the kind of intra-role conflict that may be active in this marriage could include the husband's valuing intimacy and mutual support (androgynous values) and at the same time valuing the more expressive aspects of the traditional husband role (such that he does not, at times, care to recognize and/or deal with the wife's, at his own, conflicts and needs). The wife values autonomy and equality, yet at the same time can be dependent on her husband's approval.

The spouses may have a problem with role expectations and enactment as well. If there are combined androgynous and traditional roles in the marriage, both spouses would be ambivalent regarding their own and one another's roles. The confusion engendered by this ambivalence could make role enactment difficult, and, as Sharp and Gine (1984) have illustrated, enactment of role expectations is related to marital adjustment and satisfaction.

Lastly, the couple's personalities may differ and over time such that resolution of conflicts is difficult to achieve. The wife's Time Lane seems to reveal a person who is very self-disclosing and open to confronting and discussing negative issues, whereas the husband's Time

Lina seems to reveal less self-disclosure and may suggest that he tends to withdraw from conflict and/or the negative. The husband tends to rate his time as neutral rather than negative, and on various occasions, when the wife's reports noted severe conflicts or intense arguments, the husband did not make note of any conflict occurring. If the wife's style is to confront and deal with negatives and the husband's style is to overlook the negative, the spouses might have difficulty understanding one another.

In sum, these spouses experience unhappiness on the day-to-day level and happiness on the global level. Both spouses appear to be involved in role conflicts; they exhibit both traditional and androgynous role attitudes. The contrasting personal styles of the couple are noted since they may contribute to the couple's dissatisfaction.

Summary of Two Case Studies

The following is a summary of the important themes discovered in the androgynous and traditional couples' Two Case Studies:

1. Androgynous couples generally appeared to be more open, flexible, complex, and concerned with intimacy, communication, and self- and relationship development than traditional couples.
2. Traditional couples generally appeared to be more rigid, conventional, shallow, and unconcerned with self- and or relationship development than androgynous couples.

3. Traditional spouses appeared to need more intimacy and communication in order for satisfaction to emerge.

4. The traditional husbands' reports may indicate a growing concern with intimacy and communication.

5. The anonymous wives' reports may indicate overly high appraisals.

6. The anonymous husbands' reports may indicate passivity and/or low appraisal.

7. Many wives (regardless of type) appeared to need reassurance and/or flattery (i.e., compliance in front of friends or positive comparisons with other wives).

8. Most husbands (regardless of type) seemed to have a negative attitude toward the sharing of household tasks and child-care.

9. Most wives (regardless of type) appeared to have the main responsibility for child-care and household duties.

10. Most wives (regardless of type) appeared to appreciate and/or desire the sharing of household duties and child-care.

11. Anonymous wives tended to feel negatively toward the lack of sharing of household duties and child-care in contrast to traditional wives, who, for the most part, appreciated sharing but did not complain when it was not forthcoming.

12- Mixed roles (i.e., the presence of both androgynous and traditional role behaviors and attitudes) created conflict and dissatisfaction for all spouses. Mixed roles occurred in both androgynous and traditional marriages.

'Hypothetical' Couple: FFI Profiles

In sum, the FFI did not significantly discriminate between spouses. Trends in the scores for the spouses, however, can be noted and hypothetical "profiles" for androgynous and traditional husbands and wives described. The profiles can help to illustrate the findings of the study by suggesting issues in the two types of marriage that may have related to the current findings.

The categorization of spouses' subscale means as non-self-actualizing, low normal, normal, self-actualizing, or highly self-actualizing was achieved by comparing the spouses' means (see Table 5) to the various subscales to the mean Shusterman (1974, p. 24) noted for non-self-actualizers, normals, and self-actualizers in his validity studies. The profiles for the spouses follow:

Androgynous Wife
 Very highly Self-Actualized (1)
 Aggression (4)
 Highly Self-Actualized
 Self-Actualizing Values (140)
 Feeling Reactivity (70)

Spontaneity (H)

Self-Regard (Hr)

Self-Actualized

Capacity For Intimate Contact (C)

Existentiality (Ex)

Other-directedness vs Inner-directedness
(O/I)

Normal

Self-Acceptance (Hs)

Sense of Hum (Hh)

Synony (Hy)

Low Normal

Time Incongruent vs Time Congruent (TI/TC)

androgynous Normal

Highly Self-Actualized

Feeling Sensitivity (F)

Spontaneity (H)

Self-Regard (Hr)

Sense of Hum (Hh)

Self-Actualized

Synony (H)

Capacity For Intimate Contact (C)

Existentiality (Ex)

Other-directedness vs Inner-directedness
(O/I)

Normal:

Aggression (A)

Self-acceptance (Ia)

Low Normal:

Time Independence vs. Time Competence
(F1/F2)

Traditional Wife

Highly Self-Actualized:

Spontaneity (I)

Feeling Sensitivity (Fa)

Normal:

Self-actualizing Values (SAV)

Existentiality (Ex)

Spontaneity (Sp)

Self-Regard (Sr)

Acceptance of Aggression (A)

Capacity for Intimate Contact (C)

Other-directedness vs. Inner-directedness
(O/I)

Low Normal:

Self-Acceptance (Ia)

Sense of Sin (SI)

Time Independence vs. Time Competence
(F1/F2)

Traditional Husband

Highly Self-Actualized

Self-Regard (Er)

Self-Actualized

Self-Actualizing Values (SAV)

Awareness of Aggression (A)

Spontaneity (S)

Normal

Spontaneity (Sp)

Feeling Hostility (Fr)

Low Normal

Existentiality (Ex)

Capacity for Intimate Contact (CI)

Rejection of Man (RM)

Self-Acceptance (Sa)

Unpleasantness vs. Inner-Directedness
(U/D)

Time Inexperience vs. Time Consciousness
(TI/TC)

CHAPTER 4 CONCLUSION

The current study was initiated to investigate the relationship of androgyny to marriage and to personality. Many studies suggested a relationship between aspects of androgyny and marital satisfaction, marital communication, and positive personality characteristics (see Chapter 1). With the introduction of the Low Sex Role Inventory (LSRI), it became possible to directly study androgynous spouses. Previously, studies concentrated on expressions of androgyny or equidistribution in marriage (or males were presumed for equidistribution or traditional relationships). No scale existed for the direct measurement of psychological androgyny, and it was therefore not possible to directly examine the androgynous spouse.

In measuring the androgynous spouses, it was predicted that they would compare favorably to their traditional counterparts in terms of marital satisfaction and communication, as well as on personality variables. However, in the current study it was found that the androgynous spouses did not differ significantly from the traditional spouses in terms of measures and self-actualization-

It was predicted that the androgynous and traditional wives would have similar levels of understanding of spouses, and this prediction was borne out by the data;⁴ however, it was not found that the androgynous husbands had higher levels of understanding of spouses than the traditional husbands. In terms of marital satisfaction and marital communication, there was evidence that challenged our expectations for the couples. The traditional couples had higher marital satisfaction than the androgynous couples and tended to have higher marital communication as well. There was also evidence that suggested that the traditional wives had higher marital satisfaction than the androgynous wives.

There was limited evidence of a positive relationship between understanding of spouses and the personality characteristics of husbands and self-esteemism. When testing one subscale of the IET (the IET scale), it was found that the androgynous wives scored higher than the traditional wives.

In the current investigation, our predictions regarding positive effects of androgyny versus traditionalism on the marriage relationship and on personality were challenged and/or some are in only a limited manner by the data.⁵ In understanding these results we might note that

⁴The reader is advised that interpretations regarding equality of husbands' scores should be approached with caution. Equal scores for the finding of no differences may result from factors other than those noted in the current study.

it is possible that androgynous persons may not be as well-adjusted and predisposed toward good marital relationships as the data appeared to indicate. Many studies associated aspects of androgyny to personal and marital adjustment.

Spence et al. (1974), for example, found that endorsement by both men and women of highly valued masculine and feminine traits correlated positively with self-esteem. La (1982) found a relationship between egalitarian power patterns in marriage and marital adjustment. These studies, however, dealt with aspects of androgyny and did not focus on persons specifically designated as androgynous. Ben (1972) found that androgynous persons exhibited greater adaptability, effectiveness, and coping, yet future studies of androgynous persons (perhaps of different background) may discover maladjustment of certain kinds among androgynous persons and/or lack of capacity and communicative abilities. Perhaps we cannot as yet be definitive regarding the relation of androgyny to good personal and marital adjustment. Future studies may find that androgynous persons do not differ substantially in levels of narcissism, self-actualization, marital adjustment, and communication from other persons; perhaps we may find that being androgynous carries its own burdens (such as the burden of being "alienated" from the general culture).

Another issue that might have been associated with the results of the current investigation is that of the

self-selection of the participants in the study. Couples with marital and/or personal difficulties might have been desirous of participating as a project offering feedback regarding themselves and their relationships. If couples who were already experiencing difficulties chose to participate in the study, the results may have been influenced by the preexisting maladjustments of these couples. If androgynous couples, particularly, whose marriages and personal lives were in need of assistance chose to participate in the study, such self-selection would help explain the current findings.

It might also be the case that another type of self-selection influenced the results of the current investigation. Perhaps the androgynous couples that participated in the study were a select group of androgynous couples, a group of androgynous couples who chose to marry. Possibly, marriage is a special experience for androgynous individuals. There is some indication in the data that androgynous persons appear to tend toward independence of societal norms and to choose their own styles of adaptation (e.g., Ben, 1971). If androgynous persons are usually independent of society, they might also voluntarily choose not to participate in the societal institution of marriage. Androgynous persons who did choose marriage might do so because of their own maladjustments and a

conscious need for the security, acceptability, and sense of permanence and belonging offered by marriage. The androgynous persons participating in the current study, thus, might differ from other androgynous persons in terms of being more solidary.

To possibly illuminate the results of the current study and the suggested explanations for the results, we will examine information offered by the "hypothetical" couple PCE profiles and the Time Line reports. There are trends in the scores of the androgynous spouses that present a hypothetical couple. By use of the mean scores on the subscales as follows, both spouses have similar internalizing support values indicating a potential for good anxiety; however, they have low time values indicating neurotic symptomatology and limitations of their self-actualization, limiting the living out of their potentials for anxiety. The wife has a very high score on the aggression subscale, she is self-actualized on the scales involving self-regard, feeling, spirituality, intimacy, and living by self-actualizing values. She has low scores on self-acceptance, nature of man, and synergy. She appears, therefore, to be quite aggressive, has the capacity to feel, express her feelings, to be intimate, and lives by self-actualizing values; however, she has low self-acceptance, a cynical view of human nature, and

an inability to find a viewpoint and balance to life. Consequently, she may be overly aggressive, and as a cynical and aggressive woman with low self-acceptance, her relationship with others and her functioning in the world could be impaired.

Similarly, the husband's profile presents negative and positive elements. He is self-actualized in terms of self-regard, destiny, ideology, living out of the self-actualizing values, nature of man, agency, and spontaneous behavior, he has low aggression, low self-acceptance, and neurotic symptomatology. The husband's low aggression, his lack of self-acceptance, and his neurotic symptomatology could diminish the viability of his other self-actualized traits. His low aggression might make it hard for him to advance in career endeavors or to cope with the many situations in the social world that demand aggression, and his lack of self-acceptance could limit his effectiveness in intimate relationships. It is interesting to note that the two profiles of the anonymous spouses complement each other in terms of specific areas of difficulty: The wife has very high aggression, the husband, low; and the husband has a benevolent view of human nature with the wife having a cynical view. (They both exhibit neurotic symptomatology and poor self-acceptance.)

The androgynous FBI profiles are supported to some degree by the Tura Law reports. In the first place, the husbands appeared to be kinder and gentler and unaggressive and the wives, although exhibiting sensitivity, could at times appear unusually aggressive and/or cynical. Various comments made by androgynous spouses reflect the low male aggression-high female aggression pattern: the androgynous husband describes his difficulties in "standing up for himself" with his wife and in dealings with the world; the wife complains about her husband's "lack of responsiveness" to her sexual overtures and adds that she disliked his "sneaking response" when she berated him. An androgynous wife describes her frequent screaming at her husband, an androgynous husband derives much of his happiness from his wife's job.

The type of FBI profiles and the Tura Law chart for the androgynous couples might be indicative of one first point offered in explanation of the data, that is, the maladjustment revealed in the reports and profiles may describe the kinds of problems that do occur among androgynous persons and androgynous marriages. Future studies may eventually find that androgynous persons do tend toward neurotic egotismology and the aggressive female-passive male mode and that androgynous persons may find it difficult to live out androgynous roles in their marriages.

It is also possible that the POC profiles and the time line themes are indicative of the self-realization process of couples with parenting difficulties desiring to participate in the instant study. The profiles and time line themes might be describing the problems experienced by this group of androgynous couples. Lastly, the profiles and time lines could be describing the characteristics of the kinds of androgynous persons who choose marriage (as opposed to the better adjusted androgynous persons who do not choose marriage)- that is, expressive, androgynous women; passive, androgynous men, and/or androgynous persons unable to live out androgynous roles in relationship with chosen marriage.

In understanding the results, we might also note the factors of honesty, self-awareness, and self-disclosure that the androgynous (vs. the traditional) couples might be expected to exhibit. Androgynous males appear to be related to expressiveness, openness, comfort with self-development versus comfort with appearance (Mussen, 1943, 1945, 1946, 1948), and thus the androgynous spouses might tend toward greater self-awareness, self-disclosure, and honesty as their task sets. The androgynous couples' time line reports certainly suggest that they are quite aware of and open regarding their own needs and feelings. The spouses discussed highly personal feelings and

reactions in great detail; their reports appeared to be characterized by directness and contained revealing information with little indication of concern with the image presented. For example, one happy androgynous couple described a weekend involving many intimate discussions regarding the development of their love and the problems in their current relationship. An androgynous wife described in detail her hopes and struggles regarding her husband's attitudes and behavior toward her and also described her feelings of loneliness and disappointment in the marriage. An androgynous husband carefully and openly described his joy and pride at his wife's growing trust of him and their relationship. Both androgynous spouses tended to have low Lie scale scores on the Symptom Personality Inventory.⁴ Although there were no significant differences between the androgynous and the traditional spouses on the Lie scale, the range of the scores did suggest that the androgynous wives tended to have lower scores than the traditional wives.

In contrast to androgynous personalities, traditional persons are characterized by conservatism and concern for adherence to social codes versus creative self-expression and development (Bem & Platt, 1976; Bem, 1988; Ben, 1990), and thus may be expected to exhibit little self-disclosure and self-exposure in their test responses.

⁴See footnote, page 95.

As noted, the traditional wives' scores on the lie scale of the Spouse were higher than those of the endogamous wives.⁴ Both traditional husbands' and wives' styles of self-report on the true lies reflected readiness, lack of self-disclosure, and possible repression of negative experiences within the marriage. For example, the husband might have noted an argument occurring but rated the issue as pleasurable, or one spouse might have noted that there was no husband argument or conflict with the other spouse neglecting to note a conflict occurring. Many of the responses of the traditional spouses were very simple, brief, unadorned, and/or stereotypical (e.g., "I made dinner; he liked it", "She was a good hostess for company"). Both spouses' mean support ratios for the FQI indicated rigid adherence to, and concern with, sexual issues.

It is suggested that the traditional spouses may have a "watcher" in appearing unaccounted in their marriages. The traditionalists seem to live by societal goals, marriage is a common and important societal goal for them (Quasthoff, 1981; Marks & Pleck, 1978; Stein, 1987) and appears to be intrinsically involved with their identity and lifestyle. To admit to failure in marriage may be threatening to them, thus the traditional couples may have unconsciously or

⁴See footnote, page 84.

occasionally) showed some of their responses, perhaps particularly as wives related to marriage.

The androgynous women, as consistent to the traditionalists, may have no particular state in satisfying societal goals. They might enjoy some aspects of marriage, etc. as androgynous persons, they might be expected to be somewhat nonconformist and more concerned with said and/or relationships than are traditional couples. They might not have been expected to discuss their responses as they might not need to present as much of themselves as successful in their marriages.

The foregoing lessons can illuminate the results for each specific prediction of the study. The results, as noted, indicated greater happiness for the traditional wife. This finding could be related to some or all of the above factors. That is, it may be that androgyny is not so closely related to good adjustment as the data appeared to indicate, and that androgynous wives' scores were lower than expected, the traditional wives may have had elevated scores, the androgynous women could have been self-selected in terms of seeking help from the study, or the androgynous women could have been self-selected in choosing marriage. Similarly, the androgynous and traditional husbands' scores on adjustment (and the androgynous husbands' not having greater happiness than the

traditional husbands could be due to the style of speech being operative among husbands.

The wives did not differ in terms of marital communication (the androgynous wives did not experience better communication than the traditional wives), and, again, none or all of the aforementioned factors could account for this result. It was found that, as predicted and as noted, both types of wives had similar degrees of understanding of speech. The traditional husband, however, was not less able to understand his spouse than the androgynous husband, or was the traditional wife: the androgynous spouses, as predicted, were equal in understanding of speech.

We expected the wives to be equally understanding since wives, regardless of type, are universally involved in the expressive mode and understanding their husbands (Hottel, 1957; Hake & Flott, 1976). However, we did expect the traditional husbands to be less able to understand their spouses than the traditional wives or the androgynous husbands since they are characteristically not concerned with the expressive/communicative mode and/or understanding their wives (Hake & Flott, 1976; Hottel, 1957), in contrast to traditional wives and androgynous men, who are both involved in the expressive mode (Hottel, 1957; Hake & Flott, 1976; Hottel, 1957). Two factors that may have been operative in the current investigation that may explain these results include that the androgynous husbands' indirect

may have been closer to the traditional husbands' scores due to unhappiness being less related to empathy and communion than was expected, the self-reliance of the unhappy husbands (in terms of seeking help or sharing feelings), and the concurrent limitations of their ability to understand and communicate, and the traditional husbands' scores being higher due to some evolution having taken place toward a more expressive mode for traditional husbands. The factor of alienation of scores is not supported because there is no way to "fake" an understanding of spouses on a scale such as the Ben "Pretend . . ." scale which involves a subject answering items "as if [the subject] were [another] spouse."

That an evolution in the traditional husbands' role may have occurred as suggested by the Time Line reports is that for traditional spouses to be happy the couple had to have experienced some degree of intimacy and communion. Comments were made by the traditional husbands suggesting a desire for their wives to be more open regarding their feelings (e.g., "I wish she would express her needs more often"), and expressing appreciation for communication ("We had a good, long talk"). The profiles of the traditional couples offered by the two subscales also suggest some evolution on the part of the traditional husbands. Both spouses had low Support and Low Skills,

suggesting both freedom with social norms and neurotic symptomatology. The traditional wife was low on self-acceptance and nature of man, normal on synergy, self-actualizing values, self-regard, aggression, and intimacy; not self-actualized on spontaneity and feeling. The traditional husband was low on existentiality, nature of man, autonomy, and self-acceptance; normal on synergy and feeling, and self-actualized on self-regard, aggression, spontaneity, and self-actualizing values. In some ways the husband's profile follows our expectations and in some ways it may suggest a transformation (if only minimal). The husband was, as expected, low on intimacy, high on aggression, and concerned with social norms (characteristics associated with traditional husbands—Ricks & Platt, 1970; Ricks, 1967), yet he was also normal on feeling and high on spontaneity (or expression of feelings), which is not expected of the traditional husband (Ricks & Platt, 1970). Also, the husband was high on self-actualizing values, which indicates at least an interest in and acceptance of the creative, nonverbal, expressive values of self-actualizing persons (although his existentiality score indicates that he cannot, or does not, live out these values well), and these kinds of interests are not associated with traditional husbands (Ricks & Platt, 1970). The traditional wife, with her high feeling and expression of

Feeling and his sexual intimacy, represents the kind of interest in the 'feeling' elements in relationship reported of the traditional wife (Blum & Flett, 1970; Ross, 1987). Although the husband was low on intimacy, suggesting he might my have some difficulty in this area, he has a good relationship to feelings and he has a woman with sensitive, expressive values. The possibility does exist, then, that he is changing in some ways, and it may be that his changing has helped to equalize some of the scores of the traditional spouses.

As predicted, the endogenous spouses were equal on the measures for self-actualization, understanding of spouse, marital satisfaction, and marital communication. They were, however, also equal on narcissism, and it had been expected that the endogenous husbands would be less narcissistic than their wives. However, we did not make a difference for these spouses, and they were both of average (vs. low) narcissism. We would have expected low scores on narcissism for these spouses due to the many studies suggesting a relationship between good adjustment and the endogenous style (e.g., Block, 1973; Spence et al., 1975; Wamp, 1972; Lee, 1971), but we would have expected that the women's scores would be somewhat higher due to the cultural pressures and alienation they experience (Grove & Fisher, 1972).

This finding may have occurred due to endogeneity not being as closely related to low narcissism as the data appeared

is indicated. Perhaps androgynous persons exhibit average levels of neurosis, and perhaps sex does not usually differentiate between androgynous persons' levels of neurosis. If self-selection based on seeking help or choosing marriage among androgynous persons did occur, perhaps the androgynous men and women seeking help for obtaining marriage have a neurosis level that is average and sex does not cause a difference in neurosis levels. It will could be the case that androgynous men who did not "seek help," and thus did not participate in the study, and androgynous men who do not marry are less neurotic than androgynous women who are well-adjusted and/or who do not marry and that both have low neurotic levels.

Aside from the factors of neurosis, all other factors were expected to have been similar for the androgynous spouses. By definition (Bem, 1974, 1978), androgyny is a role that applies to either sex—that is, it is a conception of sex role that allows for the development and inclusion of both "male" and "female" traits. The concerns, wishes, goals, and behaviors of the androgynous person are not sex typed. Aside from the factor of neurosis, which was deemed sensitive and susceptible to societal pressures on one sex as opposed to the other, the androgynous spouses were expected to be developing and fulfilling themselves within their relationship with both equally participating

is, and benefiting from, the characteristics and positive effects of their new role.

It was expected that the spouses both would enjoy good communications due to the relationship between androgyny, styles and communication (Bem, 1979; Hansen, 1981, 1982), good marital satisfaction increases the demand for intimacy and communication, for happiness, would be met by these communicative women), high self-actualization due to the very high degree of closeness of androgyny with self-actualization (Myerle & Westcott, 1974; Hansen, 1981, 1982; Tangri, 1972), and high understanding of spouse due to androgynous persons' concern with understanding and empathy (Bem, 1972).

The predictions regarding equality for the androgynous spouses for the scales related to marital satisfaction and communication, understanding of spouse, and self-actualization were upheld in the current study; however, the scores that were found were not as positive as was expected and were (as discussed earlier in regard to comparisons between androgynous and traditional spouses) equal to or less positive than the scores of the traditional spouses. Perhaps the scores for androgynous spouses were equal due to their androgyny and their scores were not as positive as was expected due to the possible self-minimization processes or due to androgyny not being as positively related to

good marital adjustment and communication and to personality characteristics (such as self-actualization) as the data appeared to suggest.

The traditional spouses did not differ on terms of marital communication levels or marital satisfaction levels, although we expected the husband to have higher scores on both of these variables. It was thought that the traditional wife would be more concerned with communicating well with the husband than he would be with communicating well with her (and that the husbands would thus experience greater communication than the wives). Empathy and communication are the common and basic of the traditional wife in contrast to the traditional husband (Hicks & Platt, 1979, Mori, 1987). We expected the wife's satisfaction to be less than the husband's because many studies associated the traditional wife role with conflict and dissatisfaction (e.g., Gave & Taylor, 1979, Gurin et al., 1984). It was also seen that many studies associated the traditional husband role with marital satisfaction for men (e.g., Bernard, 1972, Gave & Taylor, 1979).

Some explanation for these findings is indicated again in the Time scores and FOL profiles where, as discussed earlier, there was no evidence of a shift in roles for the traditional husbands. If the husband is becoming more concerned with relationship and communication, and

with understanding his wife, the wife would have scores that are more equal to those of her husband for experiences of communication. If the traditional husbands are becoming more concerned with their relationships and their wives' well-being, perhaps the wives' satisfaction levels are raised to a level nearer that of their husbands.

Finally, it was expected that the traditional wives would be less self-actualized than their husbands and that they would have higher levels of neurosis. Studies supported a relationship between the traditional wife role and neurosis (e.g., Dove & Davis, 1973; Davis et al., 1968) and reports of the traditional wife (or female) role and low self-actualization (Bem, 1974; Nelson, 1964; Rydell & Butterfield, 1974; Spence et al., 1973). Again, perhaps the equal scores found for the spouses on these variables are due to some equalization in the spouses' roles. The husband's possible concern with relationship and consideration of his wife might assist her in terms of her self-actualization. The husband's own struggle with (and concern for) becoming more humanistic might raise the level of his neurosis, and/or the support traditional wives may be getting from their husbands might lower their neurotic levels.

In conclusion, the results of the current investigation suggest various themes that might be fruitfully

examined by future researchers in the areas of marital life and sex role. It is noted that the findings of the current investigation (and all themes suggested by the findings) may be either supported or disproven in future investigations. The findings of the current study, and themes suggested by the findings, are best viewed as widening Indian lines for the correction of future lines of inquiry regarding marriage and/or sex roles.

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APPENDIX A
THE NEW RICE ROLL INVESTMENT

Full Name _____
(Please print)

Sex _____ Age _____ Occupation _____

TELEPHONE _____ (If you have no phone, please give us some way of contacting you, e.g., your address)

In the book you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use these characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Example: slip

Mark a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are slip.

Mark a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are slip.

Mark a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are slip.

Mark a 4 if it is MODERATELY TRUE that you are slip.

Mark a 5 if it is VERY TRUE that you are slip.

Mark a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are slip.

Mark a 7 if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are slip.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "slip," never or almost never true that you are "selfishness," always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible," and very true that you are "careless," then you would give these characteristics the following:

slip	3
selfishness	1

irresponsible	7
careless	5

APPENDIX B

THE COCHRAN-MANTLE TEST FOR SERIAL ADJUSTMENT TEST

APPENDIX C

THE CAPITAL SATISFACTION WIRE LINE

Interest (cont.)

SPOTS, SATISFACTION TIME LINE:

Interest, controlling your spouse. please mark on the appropriate time line (husband's or wife's), the time intervals that you and your spouse spend in interaction together during the entire day. In this case, "interest" refers at least to mutual attention which would qualify time unless or time watching TV or one spouse is asleep.

If any interaction time occurs after midnight and before 5 AM, please note the time interval (e.g., 10/15 AM to 1:30 AM) and note the positive/negative rating at the bottom of the sheet.

Interest, controlling your spouse. please color-code the time spent together as positive/pleasant with a RED marker and the negative/unpleasant time with a BLACK marker. Please use the neutral category (NEUT or BLK) only when it is impossible to rate the time as particularly pleasant or unpleasant.

If the time spent together is not continuous but "on and off" (e.g., while doing the laundry chores), mark the time segments with broken marks of the appropriate color (RED, BLACK, or BLK) (*****) and give an estimate of the time together.

At the end of each time period (morning, afternoon, and evening) please describe your spouse's pleasant, neutral and unpleasant behaviors on the lines provided. Please be specific. Describe an observable behavior rather than an abstract quality (e.g., "he brought me a glass of iced tea" NOT "he was very thoughtful"). Please be careful to use "she gave me a back rub" NOT "she did something nice").

At the end of the day, fill the completed SHEET in the ENVELOPE PROVIDED AND MAIL, TODAY. If you have any questions, PLEASE write me.

Instructions (continued)

If an exclusive interaction occurs during a test segment, leave the time line blank and omit the description of specific behaviors. If a particular type of behavior does not occur, but the other types occur, omit the descriptions of the nonoccurring type only. For example, if no negative time occurs, omit the description of the unpleasant behavior.

MOTHER'S TIME LOG

Pregnancy Time Topic: _____

Name: _____

Pregnancy Time Topic: _____

Date: _____

Pregnancy Time Topic: _____

Day of Week: _____

1:00 AM | 2:00 | 3:00 | 4:00 | 5:00 | 6:00 | 7:00 | 8:00

Of the things she did during the PREGNANT time, which behavior was the most PLEASANT for you? _____

During the MOTHER time, what would she have done to make you feel together more pleasant? _____

During the UNPLEASANT time, what behavior of hers did you find least desirable or pleasant, if any? _____

1:00 | 2:00 | 3:00 | 4:00 | 5:00 | 6:00 | 7:00 | 8:00

Of the things she did during the PREGNANT time, which behavior was the most PLEASANT for you? _____

During the MOTHER time, what would she have done to make you feel together more pleasant? _____

During the UNPLEASANT time, what behavior of hers did you find least desirable or pleasant, if any? _____

1:00 AM | 2:00 | 3:00 | 4:00 | 5:00 | 6:00 | 7:00 | 8:00

Of the things she did during the PREGNANT time, which behavior was the most PLEASANT for you? _____

During the MOTHER time, what would she have done to make you feel together more pleasant? _____

During the UNPLEASANT time, what behavior of hers did you find least desirable or pleasant, if any? _____

FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES ONLY

SOFT LIVING SCALES

Please check one

Resident _____

Wife _____

Code Number _____

Date _____

Day of Week _____

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, please circle the number which best indicates the degree of unhappiness/sadness you experienced in your marital relationship today.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Unhappy Happy

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, please circle the number which best indicates the degree of unhappiness/sadness you experienced in your work today.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Unhappy Happy

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, ranging from very bad to very good, please circle the number which best describes how you felt about yourself today.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Bad Good

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, ranging from very bad to very good, please circle the number which best describes how your spouse felt about himself or herself today.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Bad Good

Comments _____

Pete's Time Line

Pete's first birthday

Date: _____

Pete's first birthday

Date: _____

Pete's first birthday

Day of Week: _____

1st birthday 2nd birthday 3rd birthday 4th birthday 5th birthday

of the things he did during the 1st birthday year, which birthday was
 the most interesting for you? _____

During the 1st birthday year, what would he have done to make your time
 together more pleasant? _____

During the 2nd birthday year, what birthday of his did you find most
 desirable or pleasant, if any? _____

1st birthday 2nd birthday 3rd birthday 4th birthday 5th birthday

of the things he did during the 1st birthday year, which birthday was
 the most interesting for you? _____

During the 1st birthday year, what would he have done to make your time
 together more pleasant? _____

During the 2nd birthday year, what birthday of his did you find most
 desirable or pleasant, if any? _____

1st birthday 2nd birthday 3rd birthday 4th birthday 5th birthday

of the things he did during the 1st birthday year, which birthday was
 the most interesting for you? _____

During the 1st birthday year, what would he have done to make your time
 together more pleasant? _____

During the 2nd birthday year, what birthday of his did you find most
 desirable or pleasant, if any? _____

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FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES ONLY

SELF-RATING SCALE

Please check one

Gender _____

Age _____

Code Number _____

Date _____

Day of Week _____

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, please circle the number which best indicates the degree of anxiety that you experienced in your current relationship TODAY.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Anxious Anxious

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, please circle the number which best indicates the degree of anxiety that you experienced in your work TODAY.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Anxious Anxious

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, ranging from very bad to very good, please circle the number which best describes how you felt about yourself TODAY.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Bad Good

On the scale from 1 to 9 below, ranging from very bad to very good, please circle the number which best describes how your spouse felt about you or yourself TODAY.

Very 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very
Bad Good

Comments: _____

APPENDIX D

SEE HIS OLD INVENTORY;
"FARTING YOU ARE YOUR SPOUSE."

Please fill in the corresponding space (or fill with "none" if not) according to each
your answer:

Species is that _____
(please specify)

Sex: _____ Age: _____ Occupations: _____

Question: _____ If you have no choice, please give us some way of
contacting you, e.g., e-mail address:

In the task you will be asked to judge whether all personality dimensions
belong to the world like you or not. These characteristics are asked to describe
personality. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 5, how
much of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any
characteristics unmarked.

Example: shy

Mark a 1 if it is to agree or accept, agree, true that you are shy.

Mark a 5 if it is to strongly not true that you are shy.

Mark a 3 if it is to agree or accept, agree, true that you are shy.

Mark a 4 if it is to strongly not true that you are shy.

Mark a 5 if it is to strong, true that you are shy.

Mark a 4 if it is to strong, true that you are shy.

Mark a 3 if it is to agree or accept, agree, true that you are shy.

Now, if you find it is to agree or accept, agree, true that you are "shy,"
agree or accept, agree, true that you are "introverted," agree or accept, agree
true that you are "unresponsive," and agree, true that you are "sensitive," then
you must rate these characteristics as follows:

shy	3
introverted	1

unresponsive	7
sensitive	5

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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MAURICE BLANE was born in New York, New York, and attended Jamaica High School in Queens, New York. At the University of California at Berkeley, she studied psychology and English literature. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree in September, 1947. She worked, and traveled abroad extensively, and in September, 1949, she entered the clinical psychology graduate program at the University of Florida in Gainesville. She was granted a United States Public Health Service Fellowship for the year 1949-50 and a Teaching Assistantship with the Department of Psychology for the year 1950-51. She received her Master of Arts degree with a major in psychology and a minor in philosophy in June, 1951. She completed a United States Public Health Service funded internship in Clinical Psychology at Camarillo State Hospital, California, in September, 1954. In June, 1958, she received the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in psychology from the University of Florida. From September, 1954, to the present she has been in private practice as a consultant, in Los Angeles, California.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


HARRY F. SCHACTER, CHAIRMAN
Professor Division of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


HARRY L. JONES
Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


ROBERT C. MILLER
Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


BARBARA E. HILL
Associate Professor of Clinical
Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Fred R. Sperry

Associate Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.


Richard B. Sperry

Associate Professor of Psychology

This dissertation was submitted by the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Psychology in the College of Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

June, 1976

Dean, Graduate School